

**An exploration of road-transport collaboration between
private transport providers and humanitarian organisations
through strategic CSI: A case-based approach**

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DECLARATION

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ABSTRACT

A growing concern among humanitarian relief organisations globally is that the high cost of transportation is hindering their ability to, not only, effectively meet beneficiary needs, but also to expand the reach and impact of their operations. In South Africa, humanitarian organisations provide the bulk of services that address social challenges in the country. Therefore, should the efficiency and longevity of humanitarian organisations be threatened due to high transport costs, it would have a ripple effect on socio economic development in the country.

Most humanitarian logistics research in the area of saving transport costs sets its focus on saving costs through fleet management in humanitarian organisations. Owing to this, there is a gap in research regarding transport cost saving initiatives in humanitarian organisations that outsource their transport to private transport providers. Corporate social investment (CSI) is an existing platform by which free transport could be supplied by transport providers to these humanitarian organisations through a collaboration. If transport collaboration as such is initiated through strategic CSI, on the other hand, both parties would earn maximum benefits through the initiative.

Although a potentially feasible alternative, transport collaboration with private transport providers through strategic CSI has not yet been explored from a research perspective. Hence, this thesis takes the form of an exploratory multiple case study on transport collaboration between private transport providers and humanitarian organisations through strategic CSI. The research approach adopted in this study included eight qualitative semi-structured interviews with participants from four different humanitarian organisation-transport provider collaborations. In addition to the interviews and the collection of data from online sources and organisational documentation, an in-depth literature review was executed to contextualise the phenomena of transport collaboration and strategic CSI.

The contribution of the study is threefold. Firstly, it validates transport collaboration as a feasible means to save transport costs in humanitarian organisations. Secondly, it confirms the possibility of transport collaboration as a form of strategic CSI. Thirdly, it reveals the composition of transport collaboration in the form of a transport collaboration framework. The framework suggests that there are three types of transport collaboration compositions: complex, cooperative and strategic. Developed alongside the transport collaboration framework is the “three-sphere analysis tool”. The tool facilitates the analysis and measurement of transport collaborations to reveal their unique composition.

Ultimately, the application of the framework could better inform the establishment of strategic transport collaborations, thereby motivating an increase in transport collaborations as strategic CSI, whilst also enhancing the longevity and benefit of transport collaborations. Overall,

strengthening transport collaboration as a form of CSI holds the potential for humanitarian organisations to sustain transport cost savings over the long term. Considering that this study is the first to explore the topic of transport collaboration through strategic CSI, it leaves much opportunity for future research.

OPSOMMING

'n Groeiende kommer onder humanitêre hulpverleningsorganisasies oor die wêreld heen is dat die hoë koste van vervoer dié organisasies se vermoë belemmer om nie net in die behoeftes van hul begunstigdes te voorsien nie, maar ook om die omvang en die impak van hul projekte te vergroot. Humanitêre organisasies in Suid-Afrika verskaf die meerderheid dienste wat sosiale probleme in die land verlig. Indien die doeltreffendheid en langlewendheid van humanitêre organisasies dus deur hoë vervoerkoste bedreig sou word, sal dit verreikende gevolge hê vir sosio-ekonomiese ontwikkeling in die land.

Meeste navorsing in die veld van humanitêre logistiek rondom die besparing van vervoerkoste fokus op besparing deur vlootbestuur in dié organisasies. As gevolg hiervan is daar dus 'n leemte in die navorsing rondom kostbesparingsinisiatiewe in humanitêre organisasies wat hul vervoerfunksies uitkontraakteer aan privaat vervoerverskaffers. Korporatiewe sosiale investering (KSI) is 'n platform wat reeds bestaan waar vervoerverskaffers deur middel van samewerkingsooreenkomste, gratis vervoer verskaf aan hierdie humanitêre organisasies. Indien vervoer geïnisieer word deur middel van hierdie strategiese KSI, sal beide partye die maksimum voordeel daaruit put.

Alhoewel dit moontlik 'n haalbare alternatief kan wees, is daar nog geen navorsing gedoen rondom samewerking met privaat vervoerverskaffers as deel van strategiese KSI nie. Hierdie tesis neem dus die vorm aan van verkennende navorsing deur veelvuldige gevallestudies van samewerking tussen privaat vervoerverskaffers en humanitêre organisasies deur middel van strategiese KSI. Die benadering het agt kwalitatiewe semi-gestruktureerde onderhoude behels met deelnemers van vier verskillende humanitêre organisasie-privaat vervoerverskaffer pare. Bykomend tot die onderhoude en data-invordering vanaf aanlynbronne en dokumente van die organisasies, is 'n in-diepte literatuuroorsig ook onderneem om konteks te verleen aan die fenomeen van samewerking rondom vervoer en strategiese KSI.

Die bydrae van hierdie studie is drieledig. Eerstens, bekragtig dit vervoersamewerking as 'n haalbare moontlikheid om vervoerkostes van humanitêre organisasies te bespaar. Tweedens, bevestig dit die moontlikheid van vervoersamewerking as 'n vorm van strategiese KSI. Derdens, dui dit op die samestelling van vervoersamewerking in die vorm van 'n raamwerk vir vervoersamewerking. Hierdie raamwerk stel voor dat daar drie tipes vervoersamewerking is: kompleks, samewerkend en strategies. Saam met die raamwerk is die "drie-sfere analise hulpmiddel" ook ontwikkel. Hierdie hulpmiddel fasiliteer die ontleding en meting van vervoersamewerking om hul eie unieke samestelling uit te lig.

Die toepassing van hierdie raamwerk kan uiteindelik leiding verskaf tot beter vestiging van vervoersamewerkings. Gevolglik behoort dit te lei tot 'n verhoging in vervoersamewerking as

strategiese KSI en ook die bevordering van die langsewendheid en voordeligheid van vervoersamewerkings. Die versterking van vervoersamewerking as 'n vorm van KSI hou die moontlikheid vir humanitêre organisasies om oor die lang termyn vervoerkostes te bespaar. Siende dat hierdie studie die eerste van sy soort is om vervoersamewerking te verken deur middel van strategiese KSI, laat dit ruimte vir verdere toekomstige navorsing.

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*And God is able to make all grace abound to you, so that having all sufficiency in all things at all times, you may abound in every good work. As it is written, "He has distributed freely, he has given to the poor; his righteousness endures forever."
(2 Corinthians 9:8-9)*

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CONTENTS

List of Figures	v
List of Tables	vii
List of Acronyms and Abbreviations	viii
Chapter One: Introduction.....	1
1.1 Introduction	1
1.2 Problem statement.....	2
1.3 Research objectives and secondary research questions.....	3
1.4 Rationale and significance	3
1.5 Research approach.....	4
1.6 Chapter overview	5
1.6.1 Chapter Two: Literature Review & Theoretical Framework	5
1.6.2 Chapter Three: Research Design & Methodology	5
1.6.3 Chapter Four: Case Descriptions	5
1.6.4 Chapter Five: Analysis & Synthesis.....	6
1.6.5 Chapter Six: Conclusion, Limitations & Future Research	6
Chapter Two: Literature Review & Theoretical Framework.....	7
2.1 Introduction	7
2.2 Corporate engagement in development in South Africa	7
2.2.1 Funding as a humanitarian constraint.....	8
2.2.2 Transport capacity as a constraint.....	9
2.3 Corporate social investment	10
2.3.1 Cosmetic approach to corporate social investment	10
2.3.2 Legislative approach to corporate social investment	12
2.3.3 Introduction to strategic corporate social investment.....	13
2.4 Logistics collaboration and coordination techniques.....	17
2.4.1 Existing transport collaboration techniques	17
2.5 Composition of collaboration.....	22
2.5.1 Levels of collaboration	23
2.5.2 Attributes at each level of company-humanitarian transport collaboration	26
2.6 Major deductions.....	33
Chapter Three: Research Design & Methodology	34
3.1 Introduction	34
3.2 Research design	34

3.2.1	Case study design	35
3.2.2	Research questions	36
3.2.3	Definition and selection of cases	37
3.2.4	Overview of data collection and analysis	39
3.3	Data collection	39
3.3.1	Semi-structured interviews	39
3.3.2	Case descriptions	42
3.3.3	Application of the case study protocol	43
3.3.4	Quality measures during data collection	44
3.4	Data analysis methods	48
3.4.1	Analytic strategy	48
3.4.2	First cycle coding	50
3.4.3	Second cycle coding	51
3.4.4	A key for network diagrams	55
3.4.5	Memo writing	55
3.5	Summary	56
Chapter Four:	Case Descriptions	57
4.1	Introduction	57
4.2	Case A: 67 Blankets and Stuttaford Van Lines	58
4.2.1	General background and summary of transport operations	58
4.2.2	Transport operations (engagement and resource deployment)	58
4.2.3	Financial structure and implications	66
4.2.4	Managerial complexity, integration and interaction intensity	67
4.2.5	Benefit sharing	68
4.3	Case B: Operation Smile and DHL Global Forwarding	70
4.3.1	General background and summary of transport operations	70
4.3.2	Transport operations (engagement and resource deployment)	70
4.3.3	Financial structure and implications	74
4.3.4	Managerial complexity, integration and interaction intensity	75
4.3.5	Benefit sharing	77
4.4	Case C: Santa Shoebox Project and Laser Logistics	78
4.4.1	General background and summary of transport operations	78
4.4.2	Transport operations (engagement and resource deployment)	79
4.4.3	Financial structure and implications	87

4.4.4	Managerial complexity, integration and interaction intensity	87
4.4.5	Benefit sharing.....	88
4.5	Case D: Hippo Roller and 3Wings Logistics	89
4.5.1	General background and summary of transport operations	89
4.5.2	Transport operations (engagement and resource deployment).....	90
4.5.3	Financial structure and implications.....	95
4.5.4	Managerial complexity, integration and interaction intensity	97
4.5.5	Benefit sharing.....	97
4.6	Summary.....	98
Chapter Five:	Analysis & Synthesis	99
5.1	Introduction	99
5.2	Collaboration attributes	99
5.2.1	Managerial complexity	100
5.2.2	Provision	101
5.2.3	Scope of activities.....	102
5.2.4	Communication.....	103
5.2.5	Motivation for collaboration.....	104
5.2.6	Benefits.....	105
5.2.7	Limitations.....	105
5.3	Degrees of attribute variation.....	106
5.3.1	Three-sphere analysis tool	107
5.3.2	First sphere of analysis: Degree of integration	109
5.3.3	Second sphere of analysis: Consideration of impact.....	124
5.3.4	Third sphere of analysis: Actual impact of collaboration.....	133
5.4	Strategic corporate social investment in transport collaborations.....	150
5.4.1	Case A: 67 Blankets and Stuttaford Van Lines.....	150
5.4.2	Case B: Operation Smile South Africa and DHL Global Forwarding	154
5.4.3	Case C: Santa Shoebox Project and Laser Logistics	157
5.4.4	Case D: Hippo Roller and 3Wings Logistics	160
5.4.5	The attributes of a strategic corporate social investment collaboration	162
5.5	Levels of collaboration (the collaboration framework).....	169
5.5.1	Type 1 Collaboration: Complex	171
5.5.2	Type 2 Collaboration: Cooperative	172
5.5.3	Type 3 Collaboration: Strategic	174

5.5.4	Progression in the transport collaboration framework	176
Chapter Six:	Conclusion, Limitations & Future Research	178
6.1	Introduction	178
6.2	Research Questions: Summary of findings and conclusions	179
6.2.1	RQ1: Attributes of collaboration	179
6.2.2	RQ2: Degrees of attribute variation	181
6.2.3	RQ3: Strategic CSI through transport collaboration	183
6.2.4	RQ4: Levels of collaboration	185
6.3	Summary of recommendations	186
6.3.1	Unique composition of transport collaborations	186
6.3.2	Three spheres of analysis in transport collaborations	187
6.3.3	Strategic CSI includes maximised benefits as well as minimal limitations	187
6.3.4	Strategic alignment of collaborating partners is first priority	187
6.3.5	Collaborating partners should grow together	188
6.3.6	Networking events as ordinary practice in humanitarian organisations	188
6.3.7	Strategic approach to establishing a stakeholder-base	189
6.3.8	Company initiative in enjoying benefits of strategic CSI collaboration	189
6.3.9	Application of a transport collaboration framework	189
6.3.10	Transport collaboration in preference to in-house CSI	190
6.4	Contribution to knowledge	191
6.5	Limitations and future research	193
6.5.1	Further testing of the transport collaboration framework	193
6.5.2	The maximisation of benefits and minimisation of limitations in transport collaboration	193
6.5.3	Monetary benefits of transport collaboration to transport providers	193
6.5.4	Transport collaborations versus in-house CSI programmes	193
6.5.5	Three-party transport collaborations (business, government and civil society)	193
6.5.6	Shared value in transport collaboration	194
References	195
Appendix A: Case Study Protocol	202
Appendix B: DHL Interview Transcript	214

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2-1: Trialogue's CSI Positioning Matrix	14
Figure 3-1: Basic types of multiple-case designs	36
Figure 3-2: Second cycle coding procedures	51
Figure 3-3: Example of data segment after first cycle coding	54
Figure 3-4: Example of data segment after second cycle coding.....	54
Figure 3-5: Network diagram explained	55
Figure 5-1: Three-sphere analysis tool for transport collaborations	108
Figure 5-2: First sphere of analysis: Degree of integration	109
Figure 5-3: Key incidences of balanced provision	116
Figure 5-4: Incidences of favourable provision.....	117
Figure 5-5: Key incidences of significant provision	119
Figure 5-6: Key incidences of activities and geography within the boundaries of ordinary practice.....	121
Figure 5-7: Key incidences of activities and geography demonstrating elasticity of scope..	122
Figure 5-8: Key incidences of activities and geography outside of the boundaries of ordinary practice.....	123
Figure 5-9: Second sphere of analysis: Consideration of impact	124
Figure 5-10: Incidences of operational communication	126
Figure 5-11: Incidences of internal communication that are not operational	127
Figure 5-12: Incidences of external communication that are not operational	128
Figure 5-13: Key incidences that reveal the practical fit of the humanitarian organisation to the company as a motivation for continued collaboration	130
Figure 5-14: Key incidences that reveal organisational values are a motivation for continued collaboration	131
Figure 5-15: Key incidences that reveal strategic alignment as a motivation for continued collaboration	132
Figure 5-16: Third sphere of analysis: Actual impact of the collaboration.....	133
Figure 5-17: Key incidences of the humanitarian organisation's benefit in the form of efficiency of operations.....	135
Figure 5-18: Key incidences of the humanitarian organisation's benefit in the form of sustainability of operations	137
Figure 5-19: Key incidences of the humanitarian organisation's benefit in the form of large scale operations	138
Figure 5-20: Key incidences showing company benefit in the form of external recognition .	139
Figure 5-21: Key incidences of stakeholder benefit stemming from the collaboration	141

Figure 5-22: Key incidences of companies' competitive benefit from the collaboration	142
Figure 5-23: Key incidences of minor humanitarian organisation limitations due to the collaboration	143
Figure 5-24: Key incidences of moderate humanitarian organisation limitations due to the collaboration	144
Figure 5-25: Key incidences of major humanitarian organisation limitations due to the collaboration	146
Figure 5-26: Key incidences of minor limitations on the company due to the collaboration .	147
Figure 5-27: Key incidences of moderate limitations on the company due to the collaboration	148
Figure 5-28: Key incidences of major limitations on the company due to the collaboration .	149
Figure 5-29: Key attributes and degrees for strategic CSI centred on strategic alignment ..	169
Figure A-1: Theoretical framework logic model	207

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2-1: Levels and associated attribute of collaboration in extant literature.....	23
Table 2-2: Five levels of collaboration and their characteristics.....	25
Table 2-3: Summary of various levels of collaboration and associated attributes.....	27
Table 3-1: Summary of cases	37
Table 3-2: Research interviews and participants	41
Table 3-3: Summary of quality measures during data collection.....	45
Table 3-4: Example of third iteration of code mapping.....	53
Table 5-1: Collaboration Continuum.....	106
Table 5-2: Degrees of attribute variation in transport collaborations.....	107
Table 5-3: Key incidences of standard management complexity	111
Table 5-4: Key incidences of cooperative management complexity	112
Table 5-5: Key incidences of complex management.....	114
Table 5-6: Composition of a strategic CSI transport collaboration	163
Table 5-7: Transport collaboration framework.....	170
Table 6-1: Attributes of collaboration identified in empirical data versus extant literature....	180
Table A-1: Summary of cases	205
Table A-2: Summary of case-selection rationale.....	206
Table A-3: Humanitarian organisation contact information	208
Table A-4: Transport provider contact information	208
Table A-5: Data collection timeframe	209
Table A-6: Summary of predicted data analysis techniques	211
Table A-7: Summary of research quality provisions.....	212

LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

3Wings	3Wings Logistics
BBBEE	Broad Based Black Economic Empowerment
CAQDAS	Computer aided qualitative data analysis software
CPFR	Collaborative planning, forecasting and replenishment
CSI	Corporate social investment
CSR	Corporate social responsibility
DHL	DHL Global Forwarding
EMS	Expedited Mail Service
ICRC	International Committee of the Red Cross
NPAT	Net profit after tax
NPO	Non-profit organisation
OSSA	Operation Smile South Africa
PBO	Public benefit organisation
RQ	Research Question
SAPO	South African Post Office
SED	Socio economic development
SSB	Santa Shoebox Project
Stuttafords	Stuttaford Van Lines
VAT	Value-added tax
WFP	World Food Program

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

In a world of growing crises, both natural and political, the operation of humanitarian organisations to provide relief to those critically affected by disaster has become increasingly significant. At the same time, the continuous operation of humanitarian organisations in socio economic development (SED) is just as significant. In South Africa, humanitarian organisations provide the bulk of services that address social challenges in the country (Lombard, 2008: 126), to the extent that they assist the government in fulfilling its constitutional mandate. Hence, with the increased relevance of relief organisations and development programmes on a global scale, more and more research is going into improving the efficiency of humanitarian operations around the world.

Humanitarian logistics is estimated to form 80-90 percent of the total expenditure of humanitarian organisations (Kovács & Tatham, 2009:174). In effect, transportation alone constitutes the second highest expense of any humanitarian operation after personnel costs (Eftekhari, 2015:447), thereby classifying it the greatest logistics expense and one deserving of much attention. It is, therefore, not surprising that a growing concern among humanitarian organisations globally is that the high cost of transportation is hindering their ability to, not only, effectively meet beneficiary needs, but also to expand the reach and impact of their operations (Eftekhari, 2015: 447).

Humanitarian organisations and researchers alike have been inclined to commit a greater focus on transportation because of the potential cost savings it holds (Eftekhari, Masini, Robotis & Van Wassenhove, 2014: 951). Researchers have considered fleet management (in humanitarian organisations) a major area with this potential. However, not all humanitarian organisations own their own vehicle fleets, many of them outsource transport to private transport providers. Therefore, improved fleet management is not the only answer to saving transport costs in humanitarian operations. Indeed, collaboration with the transport providers to which many humanitarian organisations outsource, might be an alternative opportunity to save transport costs. Transport collaboration with the private sector in this context is yet to be fully explored.

A direct avenue which makes transport collaboration possible is companies' corporate social investment (CSI). CSI describes those projects with a social or developmental focus that are undertaken by companies with the purpose of uplifting communities. A growing number of companies are involved in CSI that is aligned with the core competencies of their businesses (Skinner & Mersham, 2008: 243). Hence, the provision of free transportation by transport

companies for non-profit humanitarian organisations is a fitting form of CSI for transport providers. Free transportation would be a substantial win for humanitarian organisations because the relief of the major expense would release funds to improve and expand organisations' social impact. Moreover, it could promote the longevity of the humanitarian organisation. Thus, transport collaborations as a form of CSI are a most feasible means for humanitarian organisations to continue (and grow) the operations that uplift and empower communities in need.

Free transportation is a major commitment for a transport company if the only advantage to the business is reputational benefit and the fulfilment of a commercial obligation (in CSI). Although a sustainable solution for humanitarian organisations, transport collaboration would not be sustainable for companies to pursue in the long term because it is a great expense to them. Strategic CSI, on the other hand, promises greater feasibility and sustainability. Strategic CSI is described as the point of balance where the benefits for both the company and the development cause are maximised (Mersham & Skinner, 2008: 241; Trialogue, 2015: 150). In the context of this study, it would be the alignment of the humanitarian organisation's social goals with the company's business activities and objectives. Therefore, transport collaborations that are a form of strategic CSI would represent a win-win for both parties.

However, although transport collaborations as a CSI do exist in the country, it would appear that not much thought has gone into the functioning of the collaborations. There has been little consideration of the structure of collaboration, much less a consideration of how the structure could strategically serve the respective missions of the collaborating parties. Hence, this study brings together, into a single exploration, three apparent gaps in knowledge. Firstly, transport collaboration as a feasible means to save transport costs in humanitarian organisations; secondly, transport collaboration as a form of strategic CSI for transport companies and thirdly, the description of the composition of transport collaboration. Based on an in-depth exploration of four existing transport collaborations between private transport providers and humanitarian organisations, this study is the first exploration into transport collaboration through strategic CSI. Furthermore, it is the first study to suggest a framework that describes the structure of this kind of transport collaboration.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Transportation constitutes the highest expense of humanitarian operations, after personnel costs. The implications of this are detrimental to the life of humanitarian organisations and therefore, also to the sustainability of effective social development in the country. Strategic CSI is an existing platform through which private transport and logistics providers could contribute free transportation to humanitarian organisations in a collaboration as part of their SED

commitment. Applied in a transport collaboration, strategic CSI would allow for the minimisation of transport costs for humanitarian organisations, together with the maximisation of CSI benefits for transport providers. Despite humanitarian logistics researchers' narrowing focus on the possibilities of transportation cost reduction, there is no extant literature that explores transport collaboration through strategic CSI as one of these possibilities. Hence, the main objective of the study is to explore the possibility of, and establish a framework for, strategic CSI through road-transport collaborations between private transport providers and humanitarian organisations.

1.3 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES AND SECONDARY RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The main objective of the study is to explore the possibility of, and establish a framework for, strategic CSI through road-transport collaborations between private transport providers and humanitarian organisations.

The secondary research questions (RQ) of the study aim to break down the phenomenon of collaboration in order to reveal its composition, particularly in light of developing a framework for strategic CSI. They are outlined below:

- RQ1 What attributes are present in transport collaboration?
- RQ2 How do the attributes vary in different collaborations?
- RQ3 What combination of collaboration attributes are inclined to strategic CSI?
- RQ4 What levels of transport collaboration are present among humanitarian organisations and transport providers?

1.4 RATIONALE AND SIGNIFICANCE

The rationale for this study stems from the researcher's desire to bridge the gap between the corporate and humanitarian world. Companies possess the major resources necessary to make a substantial difference in society, whilst the humanitarian sector holds the necessary expertise to do so; yet, the two are still relatively disconnected. As a result, society suffers because there is either redundancy in SED efforts by companies across different industries due to limited knowledge; or there are limitations in the efforts by humanitarian organisations due to limited resources. Whereas, if corporate and humanitarian sectors could join forces in a more strategic manner, the social injustices that rule society could be more effectively and sustainably addressed owing to the combination of resources and expertise.

The study is the first contribution to the body of knowledge on the composition of transport collaboration, transport collaboration as a form of strategic CSI and transport collaboration as a means of alleviating the cost of transportation in humanitarian operations. The major practical contribution of the study is a framework for transport collaboration as strategic CSI.

It is anticipated that the realisation of strategic CSI through transport collaborations could motivate the increased pursuit of transport collaboration by transport providers as a form of CSI and furthermore, motivate the longevity of existing transport collaborations. In so doing, humanitarian organisations would sustain major transport cost savings. Consequently, they would gain an improved ability to expand their borders of reach in order to effectively and sustainably fulfil the integral role they play in social development. The study further highlights how transport collaborations could change the face of CSI in South Africa and transform SED in the country. Thus, this study is a major encouragement for further research on the topic.

1.5 RESEARCH APPROACH

This research takes the form of a multiple-case exploratory study. There are four cases in the study, each one a representation of transport collaboration between a transport provider and humanitarian organisation. The cases of collaboration include *67 Blankets* and *Stuttaford Van Lines*, *Operation Smile South Africa* and *DHL Global Forwarding*, *Santa Shoebox Project* and *Laser Logistics* and, *Hippo Roller* and *3Wings Logistics*. The humanitarian organisations referred to in the study, and which take the focus of the study, are non-profit organisations (NPOs) except for *Hippo Roller* which classifies as a social enterprise.

A theoretical framework was first established using secondary data from academic articles, internet sources and books in order to create a foundational understanding of corporate involvement in development, the transportation cost challenge in the humanitarian sector, the state of CSI, strategic CSI and the composition of collaboration.

Thereafter, eight semi-structured face-to-face interviews were conducted with participants from the transport companies and humanitarian organisations. The data from the interviews was only qualitative in nature. Through the interviews, the researcher sought to understand the basic logistics of each collaboration; particularly the role that each collaborating partner plays. To triangulate the data from interviews, documents were collected from research participants in the form of annual reports, financial reports, newsletters, brochures and presentations. Additionally, certain webpages and online articles were included as data sources. Thus, a total of three sources of evidence were addressed for the purpose of building the case descriptions: interviews, organisational documents and online sources. The data was transposed into four case descriptions summarising the logistics of each collaboration. The descriptions were subsequently approved by the participants of the study. Data collection was guided by a case study protocol established at the beginning of the study. The protocol was designed by the researcher and outlined the measures and processes to be followed in the study.

Data analysis was conducted using computer aided qualitative data analysis software (CAQDAS). The software was the tool through which the case descriptions were coded. They

were coded through two major cycles of coding. Within-case analysis and cross-case pattern search were the two analytic strategies employed in the coding cycles, respectively.

1.6 CHAPTER OVERVIEW

The study consists of five subsequent chapters (six chapters in total), the descriptions of which are outlined below.

1.6.1 *Chapter Two: Literature Review & Theoretical Framework*

Chapter Two constitutes the results of a comprehensive literature review which essentially forms the theoretical framework of the study. The chapter firstly provides a background of private engagement in social development in South Africa, in addition to current and potential future approaches to CSI. Thereafter, it journeys through existing theories and ideas related to collaboration and its composition as described by various authors. Importantly, background is provided regarding the issue of transportation costs in humanitarian efforts which, at the same time, reveals a gap in research related to both development programmes in particular, as well as collaboration as a potential solution to the transport cost challenge. The conglomeration of this information is intended to frame the research and provide the reader with sufficient context regarding the key concepts and theories related to the study. Moreover, the theoretical framework forms the very foundation on which the study and its conclusions are built.

1.6.2 *Chapter Three: Research Design & Methodology*

Chapter Three introduces the research methodology and its overall design. Additionally, it expands on the selection process for the organisations and transport providers involved in the study. It also includes details related to the various data sources, as well as the respective collection instruments. Finally, a description of the data analyses concludes the section.

1.6.3 *Chapter Four: Case Descriptions*

Chapter Four is a collection of the descriptions (or narratives) of each case of collaboration in the study. Each case is made up of a transport provider and its respective humanitarian organisation counterpart. The descriptions were compiled using the data gathered during the collection phase of the research and were written before data analysis. In other words, each description is void of any interpretation, the descriptions are merely informational. They are purposed to describe each collaboration according to the main attributes of collaboration as identified in the theoretical framework. Thus, the chapter can be considered a composition of the findings of the study.

1.6.4 Chapter Five: Analysis & Synthesis

Chapter Five synthesises and discusses the findings of the research in light of the four research questions and theoretical framework. In this chapter, the findings from the research cases (and implications thereof) are analysed. Discussed first are the most significant attributes of collaboration present across the collaborations in the study. Secondly, the degree to which these attributes vary across the cases is explored. Thirdly, the attributes associated with a strategic CSI collaboration are uncovered in order to finally, determine the levels of collaboration. Thus, the chapter follows the researcher's discovery of the ultimate composition of transport collaboration that attains strategic CSI and presents a framework for transport collaboration at the end.

1.6.5 Chapter Six: Conclusion, Limitations & Future Research

Chapter Six, the final chapter of the study, is a summation of the conclusions, recommendations and limitations of the research. The conclusions summarise the collaboration framework that results ultimately in a strategic CSI collaboration. The chapter includes recommendations which stem from the conclusions and limitations of the research as well as, a detailed description of the study's contribution to knowledge.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW & THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The literature review was conducted in order to provide sufficient context to, and a comprehensive substantiation for, transport collaboration between humanitarian organisations and transport providers as a form of strategic CSI. Over and above the provision of sufficient context, the literature review culminates in a theoretical framework that helped structure the exploration of transport collaboration through strategic CSI, particularly its composition. The literature review and theoretical framework were compiled with reference to academic articles, various internet sources and books.

Discussed first is a background to corporate engagement in the humanitarian environment, including reasons for humanitarian organisations' need for external assistance by the likes of private companies. Thereafter, a review of CSI (and strategic CSI) further establishes the South African context of corporate involvement with humanitarian organisations, as well as the possibility of CSI as a platform for transport collaboration. Existing methods of collaboration are also reviewed which demonstrate the gap in research about transport collaboration through CSI as an alternative method. Finally, the chapter ends with an in-depth review of extant theories surrounding the composition of collaboration.

2.2 CORPORATE ENGAGEMENT IN DEVELOPMENT IN SOUTH AFRICA

The growing relevance for private sector engagement in SED is twofold. Firstly, the humanitarian sector is facing strain financially, together with an inadequate capacity to perform its mandate. Yet, society relies heavily on the operation of humanitarian organisations to address social issues, and so the accumulative weight has become too great for them to carry alone. Secondly, there is external pressure on companies to become more actively involved in the humanitarian sector in South Africa and thereby demonstrate a social conscience (Binder & Witte, 2007: 13; Hinson & Ndhlovu, 2011: 335). Put bluntly, private engagement in socio-economic-development in the country is not only necessary but is expected (Mersham & Skinner, 2008: 239).

Humanitarian organisations play a major role in South Africa through the provision of the bulk of services that address social challenges (Lombard, 2008: 126) such as poverty, inequality and unemployment. In this way, the South African humanitarian sector assists the government to fulfil its constitutional mandate. Moreover, there has been a simultaneous rise in humanitarian need and decrease in government response to provide the services that address

the need (Stuart, 2013). Therefore, humanitarian organisations naturally fill the gap of unmet needs and insufficient social support. Globally, humanitarian organisations are expected to do more and at a greater cost than ever before (Benedek, 2015). Hence, in order to both fill the gap generated by government and to continue serving increasing humanitarian need successfully, humanitarian organisations require sufficient support and resources.

2.2.1 *Funding as a humanitarian constraint*

Funding is one of the greatest challenges faced by South African humanitarian organisations. In the present study, the term “humanitarian organisation” refers specifically to NPOs that run development programmes in the socio-economic-development sphere. The South African Department of Social Development describes “non-profit organisation” as:

“An associated term for civil society organisations that range from faith and community based organisations, charities (welfare), traditional organisations like social and sports clubs, and a host of other development and social forms of organisations working tirelessly on the social fabric of society. These organisations are commonly referred to as non-governmental organisations (NGOs), community based organisations (CBOs) and faith based organisations (FBOs)” (Department of Social Development, 2015: 6)

Non-profit humanitarian organisations, by nature, rely on funding to operate. However, donations to the humanitarian sector decreased substantially since economic challenges such as the global recession (Stuart, 2013) and have not increased adequately since. Evidence of this was found by Trialogue (2015: 89), who reported that fifteen percent of the humanitarian organisations in their study had to tap into reserve funds in 2014/2015 to sustain operations and even more were expected to do so in 2016. The consequences of insufficient funding is that organisations are forced to close down operations, as has happened in the past (Lombard, 2008: 126). Furthermore, it appears that it is not only the smaller humanitarian organisations that face such difficulties, thereby augmenting the urgency of intervention.

The activities of humanitarian organisations can be separated into two categories: programmes and support services (Thomas & Kopczak, 2005: 5). Programmes are essentially the “front-line” activities involved in the humanitarian operation such as the provision of actual services to beneficiaries or the provision of aid. Support services (or back-room activities) refer to the background-activities that enable the front-line including transport, logistics, technology, finance and communication. Such activities are classified as overheads in organisations’ budgets. However, funding is mostly allocated by donors to programmes (the front-line). Consequently, a number of humanitarian organisations experience difficulty funding overheads which constitute the essential support services (Thomas & Kopczak, 2005: 5).

Unwillingness to fund overhead costs is listed as one of the factors that make it difficult for humanitarian organisations to diversify, secure their resource base and to remain consistent with their original mission (Bornstein, 2003: 401; Elbers & Arts, 2011: 729). Most South African humanitarian organisations include overhead costs in project budgets and use general donations to cover these costs (Trialogue, 2015: 48) as donors rarely choose to directly fund overhead costs, such as transportation. If donations are decreasing, then it will become increasingly difficult to find necessary funding for overheads and funding overheads like transportation is fundamental to expanding the reach and impact of humanitarian operations.

2.2.2 Transport capacity as a constraint

In terms of the distribution of costs within humanitarian organisations, the cost of transportation ranks as the second greatest overall cost after personnel costs (Eftekhar, 2015:447). Due to the major cost savings available, Eftekhar *et al.* (2014: 447) emphasise the need for humanitarian organisations to place greater focus on transportation.

Humanitarian organisations use transportation for the transport of volunteers, aid (food or non-food items) and materials (Pedraza Martinez & Van Wassenhove, 2012:187). Therefore, the focus of transport is on the final delivery of items necessary to meet the needs of beneficiaries. In context, relief activities are concerned more with the speed of delivery in order to tend to immediate beneficiary needs; whereas, development programmes are concerned with the cost efficient coverage of identified demand – as the programmes operate over the long term (Pedraza Martinez *et al.*, 2010:405). Hence, vehicle availability and the cost of transportation are two of the greatest concerns for development programmes.

Before addressing the concern of vehicle availability, the issue of high transport costs should be explored first. The reason is that if development programmes are already strained to contribute large portions of funding to cover existing transportation costs, then it will be unlikely that accessing funding for additional vehicle capacity would be probable. Interestingly, over 50 percent of transportation costs constitute fleet management activities (Pedraza Martinez *et al.*, 2010:416). The impact of these costs naturally depends on whether the organisation owns a fleet or not.

Most extant literature on transportation in humanitarian logistics is focused on fleet management in relief operations specifically, rather than the likes of outsourced transportation and transportation in development programmes. In addition to the observation made by Eftekhar *et al.* (2014:953) that research on fleet management in development programmes is lacking considerably, literature also demonstrates a lack of research on general transport management in development programmes. Fleet management comprises strategic decisions which impact an organisation's vehicle fleet, whereas, transport management is more

operational and is concerned with real-time information, including the summarising of data for fleet management decisions (Robert, 1997).

Development programmes manage transportation differently: some organisations outsource vehicles from private transport providers (often at the same rate that is charged to commercial clients); whereas larger organisations tend to own vehicle fleets (Eftekhar *et al.*, 2014:951). South Africa does not witness development programmes as large as many other countries across the world; but rather houses a large number of smaller programmes. It is unlikely that the smaller organisations are able to afford vehicle fleets, therefore most organisations in the country outsource their vehicles. Outsourcing transport can be extremely costly, particularly as transport is the highest logistics cost in South Africa (Havenga, 2015:132). Considering that transport is one of the greatest overhead costs, collaboration in the transport function could free up a large amount of funds to better cover overhead costs and relieve some financial strain on humanitarian organisations.

2.3 CORPORATE SOCIAL INVESTMENT

Despite the growing humanitarian need and subsequent strain on humanitarian organisations, most private sector engagement is motivated by CSI as an authenticator of a company's attitude toward development.

Corporate involvement in humanitarian efforts as part of the obligatory social responsibility of the private sector is most commonly dubbed "corporate social responsibility" (CSR) across the world (Matten & Moon, 2008: 409). "Corporate social investment" however, is the South African adaption of the term (Skinner & Mersham, 2008:240). It is considered a slightly more focused version of CSR (Hinson & Ndhlovu, 2011: 343), although, there are no fundamental differences between the terms. Like CSR, CSI is an unavoidable engagement for companies that wish to position themselves as global players (Fig, 2005: 611). Owing to international authors' reference to CSR and South African authors' reference to CSI; these terms will be used interchangeably.

2.3.1 *Cosmetic approach to corporate social investment*

CSI is described as projects that are external to the business, or as outward-looking projects (with a social or developmental focus) undertaken for the purpose of uplifting communities in general. Also, the investment into the projects is not primarily driven as a marketing initiative (Fig, 2005: 601).

There are a number of companies that do not meet the above outline for CSI, as CSI projects are often driven as initiatives purposed to improve the company's reputation, rather than with

the intention of uplifting communities. This is apparent in CSI projects in which only partial or superficial changes in communities are accomplished so as to give the impression that social issues are indeed being addressed (Hamann & Acutt, 2003: 258). This cosmetic and “self-serving” approach to CSI and CSR is found to be the most common among companies in the private sector (Porter & Kramer, 2007: 80; Mersham & Skinner, 2008: 241).

Yet, business has important resources and capabilities that can and should be harnessed for development purposes (Hamann & Acutt, 2003: 261). Therefore, the focus of CSI must move away from the emphasis on image to an emphasis on substance (Porter & Kramer, 2007: 91). Companies have, indeed, begun exploring a more intentional and hands on approach to engaging in the humanitarian sector, thereby resulting in a growth of CSI projects of substance (Binder & Witte, 2007: 9; Mersham & Skinner, 2008: 243).

This gradual shift from cosmetic CSI towards CSI that integrates social issues into companies’ core activities (Fig, 2005: 611) is a sentiment that agrees with transport collaboration as a form of CSI. Transport providers could support development programmes (that address social issues) through the provision of transportation in a collaboration. Indeed, more companies are involved in CSI initiatives that are aligned with the core competencies of the business (Skinner & Mersham, 2008: 242). Yet, Fig (2005:601) identifies that there is still a separation between development and business activities. In other words, social issues are not quite integrated with business activities.

An example of the separation between development and business activities is the response of transport providers during the 2015/16 drought in South Africa. Transporters supported humanitarian organisations that collected water donations by delivering the water to communities in need (du Toit, 2015). Similar responses were witnessed during the Knysna fire disaster of 2017. Although these were initiatives aligned with the core activities of transport providers, it did not necessarily demonstrate an integration of the social issue with business activities. The response was once-off and separate from the core business activities of each company, whereas, DHL (that played the leading role in response to the Knysna fire) sees its mission as one to connect people and improve lives (DHL International, 2016a). Accordingly, DHL delivered over 284 tons of donated goods to Knysna victims from its 39 allocated drop offs all over South Africa (Lindeque, 2017), thereby connecting fellow South Africans with the victims and improving lives. This is in direct relation to its company mission and an example of the integration of business activities and social issues.

Transport collaboration implies that the company takes shared ownership of the social issue addressed by the humanitarian organisation which can translate into a long-term CSI initiative that integrates the response to social issues with the company’s core activities.

Correspondingly, researchers implore that CSI projects in South Africa should be prepared to shift from a short term, project driven approach to the pursuit of medium and long term interventions that seek societal change (Mersham & Skinner, 2008: 247; Trialogue, 2015: 157). They should be strategic and designed, over time, to impact on whole nations (Skinner & Mersham, 2008:247). In order for transport collaboration to hold any development value as a CSI initiative, it would need to be pursued over the long term with the intention of promoting greater social impact through the supported humanitarian organisation. Increasingly, companies are opting to design their social engagement through long-term programmes or partnerships with humanitarian partners (Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009: 557). Many companies have recognised that, to make a difference, long-term engagement is critical (Binder & Witte, 2007: 17).

2.3.2 Legislative approach to corporate social investment

In addition to a cosmetic motivation for CSI, a response unique to South Africa are CSI initiatives that are motivated by government regulations, namely Broad Based Black Economic Empowerment (BBBEE) charters (Hinson & Ndhlovu, 2011: 341). BBBEE forms part of socio-economic processes that contribute to the economic transformation of South Africa (Moodliar, 2016); thereby rectifying the inequalities resulting from the country's apartheid history. Consequently, companies typically respond to these legislative requirements without invested interest in the social issue at hand (Hinson & Ndhlovu, 2011: 341).

Companies are scored on their compliance to BBBEE based on seven subsections. Companies with higher BBBEE ratings are considered more favourable for business. In addition, companies have to be 100% BBBEE compliant if they desire to do business with the government or any part of the public sector (Moodliar, 2016). There are eight levels of BBBEE, with level one being the highest level. For example, a company with 100% BBBEE compliance is considered to be operating at Level 4 (BEESA Group, 2017a). The more points a company is awarded across the seven subsections, the higher the level of BBBEE they will possess. However, if a company turns over less than R10 million per annum, then it is exempted from being measured on a BBBEE scorecard. These companies are better known as “exempt micro enterprises” (BEESA Group, 2017b).

The benefit available to companies investing in CSI initiatives, therefore, is that BBBEE points are awarded in the SED subsection of the BBBEE scorecard. The scorecard requires large companies to spend at least one percent of net profit after tax (NPAT) on SED (Trialogue, 2015: 40). The objective of the SED subsection is to measure CSI initiatives that contribute towards SED or to Sector Specific Programmes that promote access to the economy for black

people (CASA, 2016). In order to earn SED points, transport collaboration would need to support those organisations that contribute towards SED in the country. Fittingly, most South African companies find preference in supporting existing humanitarian organisations for CSI purposes rather than running in-house initiatives (Trialogue, 2015: 44).

In addition to the benefits associated with a favourable BBBEE rating, if a company makes a donation to a registered public benefit organisation (PBO) that is section 18A-approved then it is entitled to a tax deduction for its contribution (South African Revenue Service, 2016a: 1). A non-profit humanitarian organisation does not automatically qualify for preferential tax treatment or approval as a PBO, but it can submit an application for it (South African Revenue Service, 2016b: 2). Should it qualify, it is consequently included under section 18A of the Income Tax Act which allows a tax deduction to tax-paying donors. If a humanitarian organisation can present an 18A certificate, allowing for a tax rebate, it is another small but evident motivation for corporate support (Thusanang, 2004).

Since the institution of BBBEE, there have been growing pressures on South African companies to play a more active role in fostering development goals such as the alleviation of poverty and reduction of inequalities (Hinson & Ndhlovu, 2011: 340). Currently, humanitarian organisations mostly benefit in the form of funding from companies as part of BBBEE SED requirements (Trialogue, 2015: 49) which alludes to the possibility that companies are not quite playing the “active role” in fostering development goals as they should be. In order for this to transpire, it would require an integration of social issues with the company’s core activities. In this way, striving toward nationwide development goals together with the humanitarian organisation would become part of day-to-day business.

2.3.3 Introduction to strategic corporate social investment

The alignment of social goals with business activities and the integration of social issues with core business activities sums up the principle of strategic CSI (Trialogue, 2015: 150). Practically, strategic CSI occurs when a company adds a social dimension to its mission; making social impact integral to the overall strategy of the business (Porter & Kramer, 2007: 89). Correspondingly, there is a need for a more strategic role for CSI in Africa where CSI moves from a predominantly reactive and passive intervention to a more proactive and involved one as described above (Mersham & Skinner, 2008: 247). Additionally, a strategic interaction with the humanitarian world as such generally takes place over the long term and involves significant resource commitment and joint planning (Balcik, Beamon, Krejci, Muramatsu & Ramirez, 2010: 27). Trialogue developed a CSI Positioning Matrix to classify companies’ CSI initiatives as either commercial grantmaking, charitable grantmaking,

developmental CSI or strategic CSI (Trialogue, 2015: 150). The matrix can be seen in Figure 2-1.

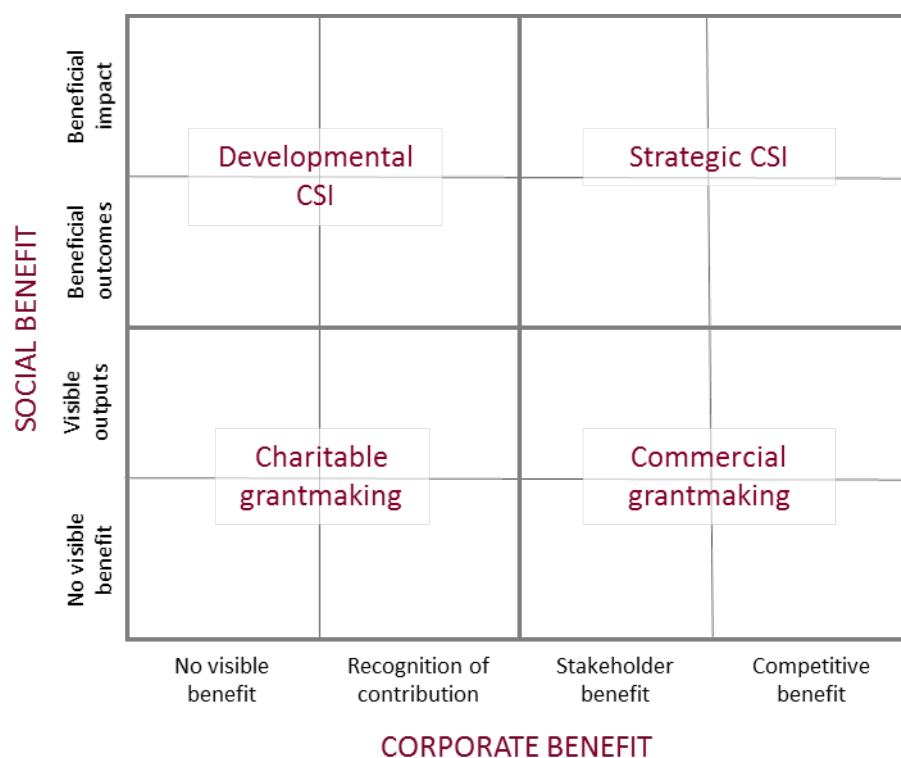


Figure 2-1: Trialogue's CSI Positioning Matrix

Source: (Trialogue, 2015: 150)

Trialogue (2015: 151) differentiates the types of CSI on the basis of benefit distribution between the social and corporate environments. It is suggested that the highest social benefits include “beneficial outcomes” indicated by relative improvement or efficiency in comparison to alternative interventions. Also included in the highest social benefits is a “beneficial impact” over the long term (three years or more). A beneficial impact is indicated by positive changes in a community beyond the direct beneficiaries of a CSI initiative (Trialogue, 2015: 151). In terms of corporate benefit, as illustrated in the matrix, stakeholder benefit and competitive benefit are considered the highest forms of corporate benefit. Stakeholder benefit is measured by elements that influence profitability such as the growth, engagement, support or development of employees, community, suppliers and so forth (Trialogue, 2015: 151). Competitive benefit, on the other hand, is the competitive advantage to the company measured in performance, cost reduction or revenue increases (Trialogue, 2015: 151). Social benefit and corporate benefit as described by Trialogue are essentially the indications of impact – the social impact and business impact – owing to the CSI initiative.

Strategic CSI is also described as the point of balance where the benefits for both the business and the development cause are maximised and integrated (Mersham & Skinner, 2008: 241; Trialogue, 2015: 150). Benefits are not maximised if the impact of CSI on the social environment is superficial nor if the benefits to the company constitute merely cosmetic or legal fulfilments. South African research dubs CSI that offers beneficial social outcomes but without significant competitive advantage to corporate activity, “developmental CSI” and not strategic, as illustrated in Figure 2-1 (Trialogue, 2015: 151). Developmental CSI is more reputational in nature and is typically insufficiently aligned with the company’s core business interests.

Conversely, true strategic CSI addresses social and financial goals simultaneously. This is where both the company and community obtain positive outcomes, impacts and benefits to their stakeholders and also where the company contributes unique assets and expertise to the cause (Porter & Kramer, 2002: 57; Trialogue, 2015: 151). Therefore, it is through strategic CSI that the most significant social impact will be made and, at the same time, the greatest business benefits will be reaped (Porter & Kramer, 2007: 85).

2.3.3.1 Business benefits of strategic corporate social investment

CSR can be a source of opportunity, innovation and competitive advantage for business (Porter & Kramer, 2007: 80). This is possible because corporate involvement in humanitarian operations calls for skills, specialised training and strategies that are different from regular business operations (Rieth, 2009: 312). In a logistical context, meeting needs in atypical markets, as found in the humanitarian environment, often requires redesigned products or different distribution methods. Such requirements and specialisation of operations can trigger fundamental innovations that can be applied to commercial markets (Porter & Kramer, 2011: 8) thereby, aiding competitive advantage. Transport companies can, therefore, derive great benefit from demonstrating best practices in humanitarian environments and applying them to everyday business activities (Rieth, 2009: 305). Therefore, there are greater benefits that can be realised through the integrated and involved nature of strategic CSI rather than the cosmetic or BBBEE-related benefits found in entry-level CSI initiatives.

2.3.3.2 Social benefits of strategic corporate social investment

Partnerships with companies have benefitted disaster relief agencies through the improvement of cost effectiveness, the development of innovations, and enhancement of capacities (Lindgreen, Maon & Vanhamme, 2009: 161). If such benefits are available for short term responses to disaster, then how much more is available for private collaborations with humanitarian organisations that run long term development programmes? The International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC) is one example of a humanitarian organisation that has

identified the potential benefits that can be derived from private collaboration. Carbonnier (2001: 954) confirms that engaging the private sector will substantially increase the ICRC's outreach and capacity to effectively run operations.

In light of this, humanitarian organisations are encouraged to think more strategically about how to engage with private companies to leverage business capabilities and knowledge so as to benefit from corporate practice in the form of new skills and capabilities (Lindgreen *et al.*, 2009: 160). Collaborations that build on companies' core competencies increase the efficiency and innovation associated with delivering necessary assistance (Lindgreen *et al.*, 2009: 160). Failure to achieve efficiency may not only result in loss of lives, but also in the loss of vital donor funds for humanitarian organisations (Scholten, Sharkey & Fynes, 2010: 625).

Evidence further suggests that partnerships between business, government and civil society (humanitarian organisations) can benefit the interests of all parties (Hamann & Acutt, 2003: 261). Significantly, collaboration between the three parties is considered necessary for South Africa (Triologue, 2015: 157) because people's quality of life can be improved and poverty eradicated only through the combined resources of government, humanitarian organisations and the private sector (Lombard, 2008: 130).

This could potentially be achieved through, first, the establishment of a strategic approach to collaboration between companies and humanitarian organisations such as through strategic CSI. Strategic CSI would cause the collaboration to recognise the need to move towards the joint identification of solutions based on mutual interests (Hamann & Acutt, 2003: 268). This, together with a complete integration of social issues with business activities, would essentially create the likes of a joint venture between the two parties. In this way, it affords government the opportunity to partner with a single "entity" rather than two entities with differing goals, thereby, presenting a more feasible way forward to multi-faceted collaborations for a social cause and ultimately transformation.

Most research is focused on humanitarian and government relations (Austin, 2000: 69), but the reason humanitarian collaboration with the private sector is of preference to government collaboration is twofold. Firstly, the flexibility and speed at which companies disburse their funds ensures greater effectiveness in achieving the maximum desired impact; also, company methods of allocating funds and accounting for them are more efficient than government programmes (Hinson & Ndhlovu, 2011: 341). Secondly, humanitarian organisations in South Africa have difficulty accessing government support, forming partnerships with government agencies, obtaining government funding and building capacity through government assistance all of which would allow the organisations to fulfil their mandates (Stuart, 2013). Therefore, the

reliability of private engagement is greater than the reliability of government intervention and support.

2.3.3.3 *Strategic corporate social investment as a stepping stone to shared value*

Porter and Kramer (2011: 6) take it a step further by introducing the concept of shared value. Shared value is realised when the operations of a company enhance the business' competitive environment whilst simultaneously advancing the social conditions of the community in which it operates. The authors argue that the interdependence between business and community means that companies can create economic value by creating societal value (Porter & Kramer, 2011: 7). Strategic CSI can therefore unlock shared value when it invests in social aspects that also strengthen company competitiveness (Porter & Kramer, 2007: 89). Transport collaboration by transport providers as a form of strategic CSI thus provides the platform for the realisation of shared value. For example, a provider could, through CSI, assist the humanitarian organisation to access hard-to-reach beneficiaries by establishing new transport routes or networks. The establishment of these new networks could then allow the provider to access commercial clients that were unreached before, thereby strengthening company competitiveness. Also, the availability of transportation capacities is widely recognised as a key issue for long term economic development, especially in rural areas (Hirschinger, Moser, Schaefer & Hartmann, 2015: 4).

2.4 LOGISTICS COLLABORATION AND COORDINATION TECHNIQUES

Transportation costs are the major focus of not only the humanitarian world, but also the corporate world. Improved transportation coordination in private companies improves the overall success of the supply chain since transportation accounts for a significant percentage of supply chain costs and plays a critical role in meeting customers' expectations (Balcik *et al.*, 2010: 29).

The focus on transportation has resulted in the employment of a wide range of strategies in both sectors, intended to improve the efficiency of transportation whilst reducing its high costs. Many companies have tried to improve transportation activities to reduce cost, but many also believe that there are no additional measures to be taken (Asawasakulsorn, 2015: 200). Therefore, the strategy currently being explored by researchers, humanitarians and companies alike is that of collaboration.

2.4.1 *Existing transport collaboration techniques*

Transport collaboration with companies has not been extensively explored in the context of humanitarian organisations. However, the variation of existing transport collaboration methods will be a worthwhile exploration so as to validate transport collaboration with a humanitarian

organisation and a single company through CSI. Exploring existing methods will firstly, highlight their shortfalls which the proposed form of collaboration can pick up. Secondly, the strengths of existing methods could expose principles that should, too, be employed.

2.4.1.1 *Interagency collaboration in humanitarian efforts*

A collaboration method that has received a lot of attention, by reason of the increasing scarcity of global resources, is horizontal collaboration (or interagency collaboration) between humanitarian organisations (Balcik *et al.*, 2010: 23). This comprises of the alignment of available resources within and between the organisations that make up the humanitarian network (Scholten *et al.*, 2010: 625).

Horizontal collaboration is considered to help increase the impact or efficiency of an overall operation; whilst a lack of coordination wastes resources and response time (Blecken & Schulz, 2010: 637; Chandes & Paché, 2010: 337). Interagency coordination is most often referred to in the context of disaster relief. It is identified by Kovács and Spens (2011a: 34) as a means of preventing inefficiencies, duplications and overlap in humanitarian activities in relief operations.

A number of organisations have even started to work as service providers for each other (Kovács & Spens, 2011b:35) as a form of horizontal collaboration. Typically, this kind of collaboration could only take place between organisations that own vehicle fleets. Whilst this is a completely viable alternative, the question of capacity still remains. It may not be enough for humanitarian organisations to share transport resources if existing resources are already insufficient. Another method of horizontal collaboration is the pooling and sharing of transport resources, which has proven effective in a number of disaster relief operations (Balcik *et al.*, 2010: 26). However, Kovács and Spens (2011a: 35) point out that shared transportation between organisations will be truly effective only if the products being transported are the same.

Interagency collaboration may not be the most appropriate alternative for development programmes. The most apparent reason is because of the costs involved in owning a vehicle fleet. Fleet management is said to constitute over fifty percent of transport costs in a humanitarian operation (Pedraza Martinez *et al.*, 2010: 416). With the lack of available funding for South African humanitarian organisations, it is probable that the majority of organisations in the country do not own vehicle fleets. Furthermore, it is unlikely that organisations will afford to introduce a vehicle fleet to their development programmes.

Interestingly, Blecken and Schulz (2010: 653) mention that the lack of incentives for cost efficiency in horizontal collaboration are one of its major limitations. This presents another reason for the incompatibility of interagency collaboration among humanitarian organisations

that run development programmes. Development programmes' operation over the long term means that a major focus is on cost efficiency because of the ability to plan in advance; whereas, the main focus of relief operations is time efficiency. If horizontal collaboration does not offer the benefit of cost effectiveness, it is not suitable for development programmes. For this reason, the use of commercial instead of humanitarian service providers (from the perspective of long term efficiency) was suggested as a more promising direction for humanitarian collaboration research (Blecken & Schulz, 2010: 653).

2.4.1.2 *Service provider and humanitarian collaboration*

Kovács and Spens (2011a: 35) expose that a trend of humanitarian organisations is to develop relationships with logistics service providers to “actually” solicit in-kind donations such as vehicles. This does not really portray an example of collaboration; but rather an engagement with a hidden agenda. Temporary and unreliable in nature, the “soliciting” of in-kind donations does not point to a sustainable transportation solution for humanitarian organisations. A collaboration, however, with a transport provider would involve levels of trust, mutual benefit and reliability that contradict this apparent trend. Moreover, the overall aim of any humanitarian organisation should be the establishment and management of an efficient and effective supply chain, which necessitates the adoption of strategic approaches rather than a “whatever it takes” approach (Scholten *et al.*, 2010: 625).

Nevertheless, interactions with transportation companies generally emerge in the development environment as such relationships are difficult to establish in short-lived disaster relief (Balcik *et al.*, 2010: 27). An identified opportunity for development, therefore, is to establish long term collaborations with suppliers (Balcik *et al.*, 2010: 27) such as transport providers. In transportation collaboration, companies provide physical resources, they are sometimes directly involved in the delivery of supplies and also share knowledge and expertise in transport systems management with their humanitarian counterparts (Balcik *et al.*, 2010: 28). These aspects contribute to the professionalisation of humanitarian operations; something that humanitarians has been considered lacking in humanitarian logistics (Maspero & Ittmann, 2008: 181; Kovács & Spens, 2011: 35).

The present study considers transport collaboration involving a single provider and single humanitarian organisation. However, an alternative explored through literature is multi-company collaborations. Multi-company collaborations combine collective corporate resources and best practices to offer a wider array of solutions and expertise to relief agencies, all of which increase social impact (Lindgreen *et al.*, 2009: 161; Balcik *et al.*, 2010: 27). Despite the impact of multi-company collaborations, their managerial complexity could be too great to sustain over long term development. This is because it would not merely be the humanitarian

organisation coordinating with multiple companies, but the companies coordinating with one another.

Therefore, single transport provider collaboration in this context, would be most sustainable. If these collaborations are done well, they can become “learning laboratories” for both the company and humanitarian organisation (Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009: 557). Accordingly, the value of a single transport provider’s involvement with a single humanitarian organisation is the opportunity for continuous learning. Whereas, if the transport providers to a humanitarian organisation constantly change, the lessons learned by previous providers are difficult to transfer to a company of different capabilities and resources. This would not be conducive to the growing improvement of humanitarian logistics operations.

2.4.1.3 Commercial transport and logistics collaborative techniques

Commercial logistics and humanitarian logistics have much in common (Chandes & Paché, 2010: 321) and the application of commercial logistics in humanitarian operations has become an absolute necessity (Chandes & Paché, 2010: 337). For this reason, existing transport collaboration techniques of private companies are worth exploring to determine the suitability of their application in development. When running development programmes, humanitarian organisations make long-term decisions under low uncertainty with cost efficiency as the main objective (Pedraza Martinez & Van Wassenhove, 2012: 189). Furthermore, the transport needs of development programmes are characterised by low demand uncertainty, low urgency and long duration (Pedraza Martinez & Van Wassenhove, 2012: 188). Owing to their nature, development programmes are better suited to the application of commercial logistics principles than relief agencies.

A first transport collaboration technique applied in the corporate sector is the combinatorial matrix auction, which is a method of collaboration that is most effective for less than truckload freight with known capacity requirements. In this system, companies requiring transportation submit their transport requests and transporters willing to offer their service then submit their bids for bundled requests (which could sometimes contain only a single request). A central mechanism then determines the most efficient allocation of requests to transporters (Bloos & Kopfer, 2009). The requests and participants of the “auction” are represented in a matrix of columns and rows. A number of researchers have sought to improve and add to the combinatorial auction method, but the main principle of request bidding and allocation remains the same.

The combinatorial auction is reminiscent of the method employed by the likes of transport initiatives such as Uber and eShip. Uber users submit their transport requests on the Uber app where Uber drivers respond to the requests so that each request is allocated a driver. Similarly,

eShip is an online platform for South African customers to list their freight that requires transport, receive competitive bids from various transport providers and then select a transporter that matches their need and budget (eShip, 2013).

This kind of collaboration could be applied to the humanitarian environment, where humanitarian organisations list their requests and transport providers bid to collaborate. It could even form part of companies' CSI. The conditions of this kind of collaboration, however, would be that the transport needs of the development programme are *ad hoc* because the timeframe of the auction is somewhat immediate. Neither should the humanitarian organisations need special requirements such as driver knowledge of the cultural setting of beneficiaries; nor should they rely on transporters' possession of any special capabilities required to deliver goods in rural terrain with poor infrastructure. This is because the transporters for each operation may differ, along with their values and abilities.

Also, such a system does not provide the opportunity to build trust or dependability between the transporter and humanitarian organisation as transporters are constantly changing. Yet, both trust and dependability are considered critical for transport collaboration (Fugate, Davis-Sramek & Goldsby, 2009: 440), particularly when the output of the collaboration is to meet the real needs of real people. Indeed, the human factor of humanitarian logistics is not considered enough (Kovács & Spens, 2011: 41).

A second collaboration method is known as the Groupage System. It is defined as the "levelling of transportation capacity across voluntarily cooperating companies who remain legally independent" (Bloos & Kopfer, 2009). There are various models of the Groupage System that exist. If applied to the humanitarian environment, the Groupage System would be most appropriate for those development programmes that own vehicle fleets. The Groupage System would then essentially be a platform for interagency vehicle pooling.

Bilateral negotiations form a third type of collaboration technique. These are best applied to smaller transport collaborations where transport requests are known well in advance and when quick exchange is not necessary (Bloos & Kopfer, 2009: 4). The partners of the collaboration then buy and sell transport requests. This appears to suit development programmes because of its plannability. However, bilateral negotiations would, too, be best applied by those humanitarian organisations that own vehicle fleets so that they can "buy and sell" transport requests between one another using their respective fleets. This similarly emulates the trend identified by Kovács and Spens (2011a: 34) where humanitarian organisations become service providers to one another.

One important factor that can be learned from existing private and humanitarian transport collaborations is the significance of well-working coordination between all the actors in a supply

chain. In the corporate world, a lack of coordination among supply chain members has been shown to increase inventory costs, lengthen delivery times and compromise customer service (Balcik *et al.*, 2010: 22). Transport providers' provision of transport to humanitarian organisations through collaboration, essentially means that they become a major member of the organisation's aid chain. Therefore, there is great responsibility for the actors to coordinate their efforts effectively in the collaboration.

2.5 COMPOSITION OF COLLABORATION

Despite the possibilities of improved transport costs and greater social impact, the ways that private-humanitarian collaborations can and should be implemented are not well understood (Seitanidi & Crane, 2009: 414). It is for this reason that the modality of, and consequent establishment of, a framework for transport collaboration through CSI is a worthwhile exploration. A framework would provide a tangible roadmap (Benedek, 2015) for transport collaborations that reap all the benefits available in strategic CSI and, in the long run, pave the way for shared value.

Coordination within a supply chain is described by Xu and Beamon (2006: 4) as a strategic response to the challenges that arise from the dependencies of various organisations acting together in the same supply chain. Humanitarian organisations use the terms collaboration and coordination interchangeably (Balcik *et al.*, 2010: 23). But, for the purpose of this study, collaboration is defined as: a coalition in which resources are shared or exchanged, with the goal of employing activities or making decisions that will generate benefits that the collaborating partners could not generate individually (Audy, D'Amours, Lehoux & Ronnqvist, 2012: 634).

Transport collaboration itself, is not a new concept. However, an exploration of the components of such collaboration as a form of strategic CSI between humanitarian organisations and transport companies has never before been investigated. A breakdown of the elements of transport collaboration required for strategic CSI will highlight its composition and set the foundation on which a framework for the implementation of collaboration may be built. Lindgreen *et al.* (2009: 149) agree that in order to think strategically about cross-sector collaborations, a framework that enables one to envision strategic options is of foremost importance.

There are a number of papers in both humanitarian logistics and commercial logistics that define the composition of collaboration in terms of levels or stages. Each level or stage differs according to a particular set of attributes. Each attribute is typically dissected to reveal several associated degrees of variation within it. However, there is no standard definition. Despite the varying definitions, certain levels (or stages) of collaboration are consistent throughout

literature in view of the similarity of the attributes associated with each, although, authors differ on how many levels exist in collaboration.

2.5.1 *Levels of collaboration*

Most authors view the levels of collaboration as a type of continuum which suggests that collaborating partners can progress from the lower levels of collaboration to the higher levels as strategies, decisions and actions are adapted (Austin, 2000: 72; Skjoett-Larsen, Thernoe & Andresen, 2003: 535; Frey, Lohmeier, Lee & Tollefson, 2006: 384; Burke & Oglesby, 2012: 17). In so doing, the highest levels are established as the “highest strategic levels of collaboration” (Austin, 2000: 71). Table 2-1 summarises the levels and associated attributes as identified by five groups of authors.

Table 2-1: Levels and associated attribute of collaboration in extant literature

Authors	Type of collaboration	Levels of collaboration	Attributes of collaboration
Audy <i>et al.</i> (2012: 365)	Inter-firm	1. Transactional 2. Information exchange 3. Co-evolution	Leadership Objectives Information sharing Benefit sharing
Austin (2000: 69)	Cross-sector (humanitarian organisations and businesses)	1. Philanthropic 2. Transactional 3. Integrative	Level of engagement Resource transfer Importance to mission Scope of activities Interaction intensity Managerial complexity Strategic value
Burke and Oglesby (2012: 18)	Cross-sector (Businesses and humanitarian organisations through platforms)	1. Philanthropy 2. Using core competencies 3. Transforming humanitarian action	Scope of activities Role definition
Frey <i>et al.</i> (2006: 387)	Grant partners (inter-agency)	1. Networking 2. Cooperation 3. Coordination 4. Coalition 5. Collaboration	Purpose Structure Process
Skjoett-Larsen <i>et al.</i> (2003: 535)	Supply chain members	1. Basic 2. Developed 3. Advanced	Information sharing Degree of discussion Coordination Competence development Evaluation Type of relationship Theoretical explanation

Authors define the various levels of collaboration using varying degrees of attributes common to each level of collaboration. As the levels increase, so the degrees and conditions of each attribute differ. Collaborating partners are able to identify at which level in the continuum they operate before determining what measures should be in place so as to achieve the highest strategic level of collaboration. Accordingly, processes and strategies would have to be implemented that will move the collaboration along the continuum until reaching the highest level.

Audy *et al.* (2012: 633) studied inter-firm logistics collaborations as a means to improving key activities and of taking hold of the benefits associated with collaboration; such as logistics cost reduction and capacity enhancement. They consider that once the desired objectives and logistics activities of the collaboration are identified, the next step is to determine the level of collaboration. They define the lowest level of collaboration as transactional, followed by information exchange and coevolution. The attributes by which each level is characterised are: leadership, objectives, information sharing and benefit sharing. At the co-evolution level, the collaboration could lead to the creation of a new entity such as a joint venture (Audy *et al.*, 2012: 635). In a humanitarian context this would appear similar to the description given by Austin (2000: 71) for the integrative stage of collaboration.

Austin (2000: 71) creates a cross-sector (humanitarian organisations and businesses) collaboration framework consisting of four components: a collaboration continuum, a collaboration value construct, alliance drivers and alliance enablers. There are three stages (or levels) in the continuum, namely philanthropic, transitional and integrative. Each stage is defined by its level of engagement (commitment), resource transfer, the importance of the collaboration to each party's mission, scope of activities covered by the collaboration, interaction intensity (frequency), managerial complexity and strategic value. At the highest, integrative stage of collaboration, collaborators' missions, people and activities begin to merge into more "collective action" (Austin, 2000: 71). Moreover, the organisations become fully integrated.

The levels of collaboration are also defined by Burke and Oglesby (2012: 18) in a continuum framework. They use the framework to depict the way platforms and their members (humanitarian organisations and companies) view the role of the private sector's engagement in humanitarian action (Burke & Oglesby, 2012: 17). Platforms are the intermediaries that facilitate the engagement between companies and humanitarian organisations. The first level is defined as philanthropic with simple exchanges between the two parties; the second level is one where the private company uses its core competencies to strengthen the effectiveness of the humanitarian operation; finally, transforming humanitarian action constitutes the highest level. At the highest level, companies address the limitations and gaps that hinder the ability of humanitarian organisations to respond to an increasingly complex humanitarian environment (Burke & Oglesby, 2012: 18).

Frey *et al.* (2006: 387) use a collaboration scale to define five stages of collaboration among grant partners: networking, cooperation, coordination, coalition and collaboration. Frey *et al.* (2006: 387) do not use the term "continuum", however they similarly describe the progression to the highest level of collaboration. Table 2-2 describes the authors' proposed levels of collaboration and their characteristics.

Table 2-2: Five levels of collaboration and their characteristics

Five levels of collaboration		Relationship characteristics
1	Networking	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Aware of organisation ▪ Loosely defined roles ▪ Little communication ▪ All decisions are made independently
2	Cooperation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Provide information to each other ▪ Somewhat defined roles ▪ Formal communication ▪ All decisions are made independently
3	Coordination	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Share information and resources ▪ Defined roles ▪ Frequent communication ▪ Some shared decision making
4	Coalition	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Share ideas ▪ Share resources ▪ Frequent and prioritised communication ▪ All members have a vote in decision making
5	Collaboration	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Members belong to one system ▪ Frequent communication is characterised by mutual trust ▪ Consensus is reached on all decisions

Source: adapted from Frey *et al.*, (2006: 381)

Although Frey *et al.* (2006: 387) define five levels of collaboration where most other authors define three (as displayed in Table 2-1), it is valuable to consider this stage model because it highlights characteristics of the attributes of collaboration that are consistent among all the authors represented. Purpose, structure and process are the attributes by which the authors assessed the stages of collaboration (Frey *et al.*, 2006: 386). At the highest level of collaboration, the authors suggest that collaborators should belong to one system, there should be frequent communication, mutual trust and all decisions should be made with consensus (Frey *et al.*, 2006: 387).

From a more general supply chain perspective, Skjoett-Larsen *et al.* (2003: 535) consider supply chain collaboration through the lenses of collaborative planning, forecasting and replenishment (CPFR). They identify three levels of collaboration: basic, developed and advanced CPFR. Each is measured by the level of integration between the collaborating parties against the scope of the collaboration (the number of business processes covered by the collaboration). The highest level (advanced) witnesses the synchronisation of dialogue between supply chain members and the coordination of all forecasting, replenishment and planning processes based on joint-objectives despite differing goals (Skjoett-Larsen *et al.*, 2003: 537). This level suggests that there is not necessarily one dominating party but that all parties are equal in authority, which is a principle that could be applied to cross-sector collaborations. Another applicable principle is that the members of the collaboration share the

same objective despite serving different functions or possessing different goals. This could be highly beneficial in a cross-sector (company and humanitarian) collaboration.

2.5.2 *Attributes at each level of company-humanitarian transport collaboration*

Table 2-3 summarises, in greater detail, how the attributes operate at each level of collaboration as suggested by the four authors who consider collaboration to constitute three levels (and no more). Considering the attributes of collaboration listed in Table 2-1, together with the more in-depth description of the attributes in Table 2-3, the attributes identified by Austin (2000: 72) best summarise the attributes indicated by all the authors. That is three levels of collaboration: philanthropic, transactional and integrative. The attributes used to describe each level are:

- 1) Level of engagement (commitment)
- 2) Resource transfer
- 3) The importance of the collaboration to each party's mission
- 4) Scope of activities covered by the collaboration
- 5) Interaction intensity (frequency)
- 6) Managerial complexity
- 7) Strategic value

The degrees (or characteristics) of each attribute essentially reveal the predominant differences between the levels of collaboration. A notable observation by Simatupang and Sridharan (2005: 261) is that adopting a unilateral approach to the exploration of the attributes of collaboration, whereby each attribute is analysed in isolation, is to neglect the interaction of the attributes at each level of collaboration. The reciprocal approach, on the other hand, recognises that each collaboration attribute affects the others in contributing to the achievement of collaborative performance (Simatupang & Sridharan, 2005: 261). Accordingly, the following sub-sections (Sections 2.5.2.1 to 2.5.2.3) explore the attributes defined by Austin (2000: 72) and their interactions at each level of collaboration to provide a theoretical foundation on which to guide the similar analysis of the cases of collaboration in the present study.

Table 2-3: Summary of various levels of collaboration and associated attributes

Authors	Level 1	Level 2	Level 3
Audy, D'Amours, Lehoux and Ronnqvist (2012: 635)	<i>Transactional</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Simple information sharing Transactional information shared (such as orders, payments, delivery confirmations) Weak interactions 	<i>Information exchange</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Increasing complexity of information sharing Jointly planned operations Agreement on objectives Shared strategic information Decision on key performance indicators Medium-strength business interactions 	<i>Co-evolution</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Complex information sharing Strong interactions Can lead to the creation of a joint venture or new entity
Austin (2000: 69)	<i>Philanthropic</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Nature is of a charitable donor and recipient Low level of engagement Peripheral importance of collaboration to party's mission Small magnitude of resources transferred Narrow scope of activities Infrequent interaction level Simple managerial complexity Minor strategic value 	<i>Transactional</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Explicit resource exchanges focused on specific activities Core competency exchange 	<i>Integrative</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Partners' missions, people and activities begin to merge into more collective action and organisational integration Approximates a joint venture and represents the highest strategic level of collaboration Joint value creation
Burke and Oglesby (2012: 18)	<i>Philanthropy</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Donating money or gifts in kind 	<i>Using core competencies</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Private sector contributes core competencies and skills in a systematic manner in order to strengthen the efficiency and effectiveness of humanitarian action Delivering services to the humanitarian organisation or building the capacity of humanitarian organisations 	<i>Transforming humanitarian system</i> <p>Share its core competencies but more and more with an expanded focus on harnessing and adapting its capacity for research and development, strategic thinking, innovation and innovative practices to develop new or more integrated solutions to complex humanitarian and development challenges.</p>
Skjoett-Larsen, Thernoe and Andresen (2003: 535)	<i>Basic CPFR</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Low degree of integration Few business processes, limited integration with trading partners. Few key processes relevant to their form of collaboration are chosen (e.g. stock level data) Transaction theoretical approach 	<i>Developed CPFR</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Increased integration in several collaboration areas More frequent exchange of information Still some focus on cost Network approach, focusing on frequent exchange of information and generation of trust in the relationships. 	<i>Advanced CPFR</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> In addition to data exchange, it deals with synchronising the dialogue between parties. Coordinates processes within forecasting, replenishment and planning Processes coordinated on the basis of a joint-objective despite differing goals Network-theoretical approach combined with resource-based perspective/competency perspective

2.5.2.1 *Philanthropic collaboration*

A philanthropic collaboration is compared to the relationship between a “charitable donor and recipient” (Austin, 2000: 71); which implies a sort of once-off engagement. This suggests that the scope of activities and magnitude of resources deployed in such a collaboration might be small. In turn, there is a weak level of engagement and infrequent interaction between the parties with simple managerial requirements and little importance of the collaboration to each party’s mission.

At the level of philanthropy, generic resources such as money or gifts in-kind are typically donated by the private company to the humanitarian organisation (Burke & Oglesby, 2012: 18). A narrow scope of activities is accompanied by a weak level of engagement due to interactions being limited to these once-off donations. Similarly, only a few channels of communication (and infrequent interactions) are necessary to conduct the donation, making the management of philanthropic collaboration extremely simple. The risk that threatens the working of a relationship at this level of collaboration, however, is a power imbalance between the company and humanitarian organisation (Hamann & Acutt, 2003: 262; Selsky & Parker, 2005: 858; Fugate *et al.*, 2009: 428). The “charitable donor” can be considered the party with greatest authority; whereas, as the “recipient”, the humanitarian organisation is to merely accept whatever support it receives without any further input.

Banks, Hulme and Edwards (2015: 709) continue to point out that pressure is placed on humanitarian organisations to show greater accountability to their donors rather than their beneficiaries, which is contrary to the mandate of the humanitarian operations. This kind of power imbalance restricts humanitarian organisations from accomplishing maximum social impact in communities because they have to comply with donor instructions that do not always align with the organisations’ own strategies. An accompanying risk is that if humanitarian organisations are mostly reliant on philanthropic-type engagements, then as donor priorities shift, so too may the coverage and representation that South African humanitarian organisations provide (Bornstein, 2003: 402). Banks, *et al.* (2015: 712) voice concern that partnerships with the private sector would thus pose a threat to innovation in humanitarian organisations because they imply a shift away from local experiments to models that are less flexible and more restrictive.

A philanthropic collaboration indicates that benefits are skewed more in favour of the company than the humanitarian organisation; which also suggests that the collaboration is of importance to neither the company nor the organisation’s core mission. The company receives reputational benefits, and although the humanitarian organisation does receive some kind of benefit from

the donation, often it is not sufficient to aid a long term societal impact. This is the cosmetic and “public-relations-type” CSI often witnessed in South Africa that Fig (2005: 611) condemns.

2.5.2.2 *Transactional collaboration*

The identifying feature of transactional collaboration is the exchange of core competencies to strengthen the effectiveness and efficiency of humanitarian operations (Austin, 2000: 69; Burke & Oglesby, 2012: 18). Core competencies contributed by a transport provider in a transactional collaboration would typically constitute the provision of vehicles or transportation services to the humanitarian operation. However, collaboration requires investment in resources (such as time, people and finances) from both parties in the relationship (Fugate *et al.*, 2009: 438). In higher levels of collaboration, humanitarian organisations typically invest equal resources, hoping to enhance their performance and core competencies through interaction with their private sector partners (Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009: 557). Therefore, transactional collaborations face a greater magnitude of resource deployment and a more focused scope of activities which, in turn, increases the managerial complexity of the collaboration.

The exchange of core competencies requires coordination between the parties unlike in philanthropic relationships, and as a result, humanitarian organisations and transport providers begin to establish joint objectives and jointly plan operations (Audy *et al.*, 2012: 635). Thereby the frequency of interaction and information sharing between the parties increases and their level of engagement strengthens. Information sharing is a main feature of supply chain collaboration (Simatupang & Sridharan, 2005: 161) and is established as a fundamental feature of company-humanitarian collaboration at the transactional level. A more frequent exchange of information may require the use of multiple channels of communication, including face-to-face engagements which are not necessarily a requirement of philanthropic relationships.

A sub-attribute that should be introduced at this stage is described by Simatupang and Sridharan (2005: 264) as “decision synchronisation”. Philanthropic collaborations held the risk of a power imbalance, which implies decision making is predominantly one-sided. In the context of supply chain collaboration, the importance of decision synchronisation is found in that the supply chain members have different decision rights and expertise about supply chain operations (Simatupang & Sridharan, 2005: 264). Quite the same can be assumed in company-humanitarian collaboration. Humanitarian organisations have an understanding of how best to meet beneficiaries’ needs; while transport providers have the expertise required to deliver the right aid at the right place in the right time. Therefore, at the transactional level, where joint-objectives are established, the synchronisation of decisions is important to even

out any power imbalances carried over from the philanthropic level due to different decision rights and expertise.

Joint-objectives and operations prepare the ground for unbiased benefit sharing in the collaboration. From the perspective of the transport provider, it would first appear that there is a substantial amount to lose in a transactional collaboration with a humanitarian organisation. Some of the costs involved in inter-firm transport collaboration, for example, include: eventual hours of service changes, increased driver turnover, heightened security provisions that reduce driver's time and increase lead-time, volatile fuel and insurance costs, and congestion (Fugate *et al.*, 2009: 439). However, if parties embrace decision synchronisation, stronger levels of engagement and more frequent interactions, then transport providers could realise improvements in transportation in the form of reduced empty miles and dwell time, improved load factors and lower labour costs (Fugate *et al.*, 2009: 439).

Tomasini and Van Wassenhove (2009: 557) indicate that private logistics companies participate in partnerships with humanitarian organisations not only out of charitable concern, but also as an opportunity for learning and business development. These advantages could only be gained from a collaboration with higher levels of engagement and interaction such as in transactional collaborations. Audy *et al.* (2012: 641) implore that the benefits obtained by each party in a collaboration should be sufficient enough to make the collaboration acceptable for all. Despite their reference to inter-firm collaborations, this agrees with Lindgreen *et al.* (2009: 152) who believe that the exchange of value for mutual benefit represents the essence of a company-humanitarian partnership. The benefit with the greatest value to humanitarian organisations would be one that allows them to expand their reach and make a greater, more sustainable social impact. Banks *et al.* (2015: 712) concurs that the objective for humanitarian organisations should be to expand their impact, not to replicate or scale up standard interventions. Through increased managerial complexity of transactional collaborations, transport providers could begin deploying resources and activities that align with this objective. Business-humanitarian partnerships should represent the alignment of strategic business interests with societal expectations as identified by the humanitarian organisation (Seitanidi & Crane, 2009: 414).

The transactional collaboration sees a greater distribution of benefit to the humanitarian organisation. However, there are still greater benefits to be obtained that extend into the assurance of the sustainability, success and growth of both the parties' individual missions, as well as of the impact of collaboration itself.

2.5.2.3 *Integrative collaboration*

An integrative level of collaboration involves the deployment of resources over and above the core competencies of the company, with the incorporation of a broader scope of activities (Austin, 2000: 71) that cover the support for back-room activities. An example of this is demonstrated by the collaboration between TNT and the World Food Program (WFP). TNT makes consistent investments in training and information technology to enhance the WFP's supply chain capabilities and improve its fleet management systems (Lindgreen *et al.*, 2009: 160).

Thus, an intensive level of interaction is established between the two parties on multiple levels. In other words, the parties begin engaging on topics and platforms that are not necessarily related to the humanitarian programme at hand. For instance, South African companies most commonly discuss with their humanitarian counterparts the expansion of humanitarian programmes, multi-year funding and the possibilities of providing general operating support to organisations (Trialogue, 2015: 46). These are the kinds of discussions that will move a collaboration closer to the integrative level. Additional conversations take a focus on how to harness and adapt the parties' capacity for research and development, strategic thinking, innovation and innovative practices to develop new or more integrated solutions to social and community challenges (Burke & Oglesby, 2012: 18).

Austin (2000: 75) summarises the integrative collaboration as one that, instead of being a transactional relationship, like a commercial exchange, is more like an equity-based relationship in a joint venture. This insinuates organisational integration and collective action. He goes on to point out that in the spirit of joint-value creation, many companies in collaboration with humanitarian organisations engage on platforms such as the management board of the organisations (Austin, 2000: 75). This is indicative of the collaboration becoming centrally aligned to each party's core mandate, resulting in high levels of interaction and engagement despite the differing goals of the individual parties (Skjoett-Larsen *et al.*, 2003: 535). In line with this, the management of the collaboration becomes a complex undertaking. Also, the intensity of interaction and information sharing, as well as the strength of engagement, promote effective decision synchronisation at this level. To this extent, the parties adopt the ability to make better decisions and to take actions on the basis of greater visibility (Simatupang & Sridharan, 2005: 263). Partnerships imply a relationship where both parties contribute skills, resources and expertise but also share risks (Lindgreen *et al.*, 2009: 160).

Doubt has been expressed in the ability of humanitarian organisations to meet their long term goals of social justice and transformation if the focus of organisations is on short term results and value for money (Banks *et al.*, 2015: 707). In an integrative collaboration however, the

goal of social justice and transformation no longer belongs to the humanitarian organisation alone, but is a goal that is shared with the collaborating company (for which company managers joining the management board of humanitarian organisations is further evidence). The result of a shared objective of such magnitude is a prolonged (or permanent) term of collaboration that ensures the highest level of sustainability in societal impact. A clear long-term vision to guide the partnership is identified by el Ansari and Phillips (2001: 130) as imperative to aid the success of partnership work. Hence, “short term results” and “value for money” become secondary objectives to the achievement of societal change.

If integrative collaborations are compared to joint ventures, then the implication is that the mission of each individual party cannot be attained without the participation of the other. Audy *et al.* (2012: 634) explicitly mention that parties will typically be ready to collaborate if they can obtain greater benefits than those obtained individually. Moreover, Mersham and Skinner (2008: 241) describe the point of balance where benefits are maximised for both business and the humanitarian organisation as strategic CSI. This implies that benefits go beyond mere positive brand image and staff motivation for the company, and beyond short term results for the humanitarian organisation.

Due to the nature of integrative collaborations, humanitarian organisations can achieve their desired societal transformation to an extent that would not otherwise be possible if they were to act alone (Triologue, 2015: 157). Furthermore, the principle of joint-value creation in integrative collaborations provides the opportunity for the collaborating company to benefit in a form of competitive advantage and a level of credibility that would not necessarily be found in a philanthropic or transactional collaboration. Private companies’ motivation for a positive image is based on the goal of obtaining credibility and, in the long run, a collaboration that is focused on responding to greatest need will contribute more to such credibility than opportunistic efforts (Binder & Witte, 2007: 1).

In contrast, the focus of transactional collaborations on improving effectiveness and efficiency of humanitarian operations is noteworthy. However, an integrative collaboration that has its focus on responding to humanitarian need inevitably results in an improvement of operations and in addition, it produces an environment of learning for both the humanitarian organisation and company (Bornstein, 2003: 400). This is due to the humanitarian operation requiring constant adaption, a strong level of engagement, intense interactions and innovative strategies as agreed upon by parties of vastly different missions (Austin, 2000: 75). A company would not be able to learn elsewhere the lessons such as those learned from an integrative collaboration with a humanitarian organisation and vice versa. Therefore, integrative collaborations are most likely to bring about maximised benefits for humanitarian organisations and transport providers, leading them to achieve a level of strategic CSI.

2.6 MAJOR DEDUCTIONS

The tension between assertions for long term CSI initiatives of substance and humanitarian organisations' high transportation costs leaves a major opportunity for transport collaboration. Yet, transport collaboration between transport providers and humanitarian organisations that run development programmes has not been substantially investigated.

Disaster relief response dominates humanitarian logistics research. Very little extant literature delves into the depths of humanitarian organisations that run development programmes. Considering that high transportation costs and insufficient funding are not exclusive to disaster relief, there is a substantial gap left by the lack of investigation into transport solutions for ongoing development programmes.

Whilst corporate involvement in the humanitarian environment through CSI is encouraged, a cosmetic or legislative response to CSI by the business community is widely condemned. The benefits associated with this kind of response to CSI are beneficial to neither the company nor the community which it serves. Strategic CSI, on the other hand, sees the maximisation of benefits for both business and beneficiary communities. Hence, this is an alternative preferred by most of the recent studies on CSI. These benefits are maximised in the form of a beneficial impact in society, together with stakeholder benefits, and competitive advantage for companies. The review of literature confirms that, because most companies are aligning their CSI initiatives with their core competencies (owing to greater efficiencies), transport collaboration between transport providers and humanitarian organisations would be a suitable form of CSI.

The review of existing methods of collaboration proves that there is no perfect collaboration or coordination technique, which leaves opportunity for transport collaboration between humanitarian organisations and transport providers to arise as a possible alternative. An exploration of transport collaboration as a form of strategic CSI is, therefore, a first venture into transport solutions for humanitarian organisations. If transport collaboration has not yet been explored, much less could one expect research on transport collaboration as a form of strategic CSI. Finally, following previous authors, the breaking down of collaboration into levels and attributes appears to be an appropriate means to set the foundation for a framework for transport collaboration.

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH DESIGN & METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter introduces the research methodology and overall design that were found most suitable to explore the phenomenon of transport collaboration as a form of strategic CSI, and to establish a framework for collaboration. The chapter also describes the theoretical sample and the selection process of the organisations and transport providers in that sample. Furthermore, it provides detail about the sources data which were collected as well as, the collection instruments. A description of data analyses concludes the chapter.

3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

Due to the study being founded on nascent theory, there was no grounds on which to make hypotheses about the relationships between the various attributes of transport collaboration because there is no prior indication from extant theory on what issues may even appear in this phenomenon (Edmondson & McManus, 2007: 1162). Nor was there the possibility of foreseeing any solutions to improving collaboration before the composition of collaboration itself was uncovered. Therefore, an exploratory study was most fitting to first gain theoretical insights about collaboration before proposing future, further inquiry (Edmondson & McManus, 2007: 1165; Yin, 2009: 9).

The pre-existing conditions of the present study were similar to that of a study on field vehicle fleet management in international humanitarian organisations conducted by Pedraza Martinez *et al.* (2010:408-410). Therefore, the present study followed closely their research design. Both studies were built on nascent theory meaning that there was little or no previous research on the topic. Field research was thus necessary to identify and investigate the key variables of collaboration to stimulate new theoretical ideas (Edmondson & McManus, 2007: 1161; Pedraza Martinez *et al.*, 2010: 408). In addition, due to the systematic collection of original data from real organisations, field research holds the potential to produce relevant results that can be applied to collaborations beyond the cases of the present study (Edmondson & McManus, 2007: 1155; Pedraza Martinez *et al.*, 2010: 409).

Similarly to the study by Pedraza Martinez *et al.* (2010:409), a further implication of the poor availability of extant literature was that a case study approach was the most suitable methodology. Generally, the goal of a case study is to expand and generalise theories and not to enumerate frequencies (Yin, 2009: 15). Therefore, instead of practically conclusive results,

the present study aims to provide suggestive theoretical insights to inform and inspire future research on this sort of collaboration (Edmondson & McManus, 2007: 1165).

3.2.1 *Case study design*

A prominent methodology in past research on collaboration has been case studies which have proven particularly useful for generating theoretical and practical insights (Austin, 2000: 70). The overall case study design for this research can be described as a holistic multiple-case study. Yin (2014: 50) differentiates between single-case and multiple-case studies which could be either holistic or embedded case studies.

To gain external validity in case study research, the proposed theory must be tested by replicating the findings (Yin, 2009: 44). A multiple-case design was, therefore, chosen for this study owing to its replication logic (Yin, 2014: 57). A single-case study is equivalent to a single experiment and therefore, a multiple case study is equivalent to multiple experiments (Yin, 2014: 51). Accordingly, like multiple experiments, multiple-case studies use “replication logic”. For instance, if a significant finding were to be discovered by a single experiment a subsequent priority would be to replicate the finding by conducting further experiments of the same nature. Only with such replications would the original finding be considered “robust” (Yin, 2014: 57). Replication logic enhances confidence in, and the validity of, a study’s findings (Eisenhardt, 1989: 542). In this way, the multiple cases selected in this study augment the strength and validity of the potential generalisation of the transport collaboration framework established at the end of the study.

Important to note here is that the mode of generalisation for case studies is analytic generalisation rather than statistical generalisation which is less relevant for case studies (Yin, 2014: 40). Statistical generalisation would see a case as a sample of a wider population and an inference would, therefore, be made about a population on the basis of the empirical findings from the case. However, cases are not sampling units and are too few to serve as an adequately sized sample to represent any larger population (Yin, 2014: 40).

The aim of an analytic generalisation is still to generalise to situations that go beyond the setting of the specific case and not just to contribute to abstract theory building. During analytic generalisation, extant theory is used as a base on which to compare the empirical results of the case study findings (Yin, 2014: 38). Yin (2014: 41) insists that an analytic generalisation will be at a conceptual level higher than that of the cases in the study. Therefore, by analytic generalisation, the composition of collaboration uncovered in this study may apply to collaborations beyond the cases explored.

The difference between embedded and holistic studies is that embedded studies involve units of analysis at more than one level; whilst a study that examines only the global nature of, for

example, collaboration, is more holistic in design (Yin, 2014: 53). Figure 3-1 below illustrates the difference between a holistic and embedded multiple-case design.

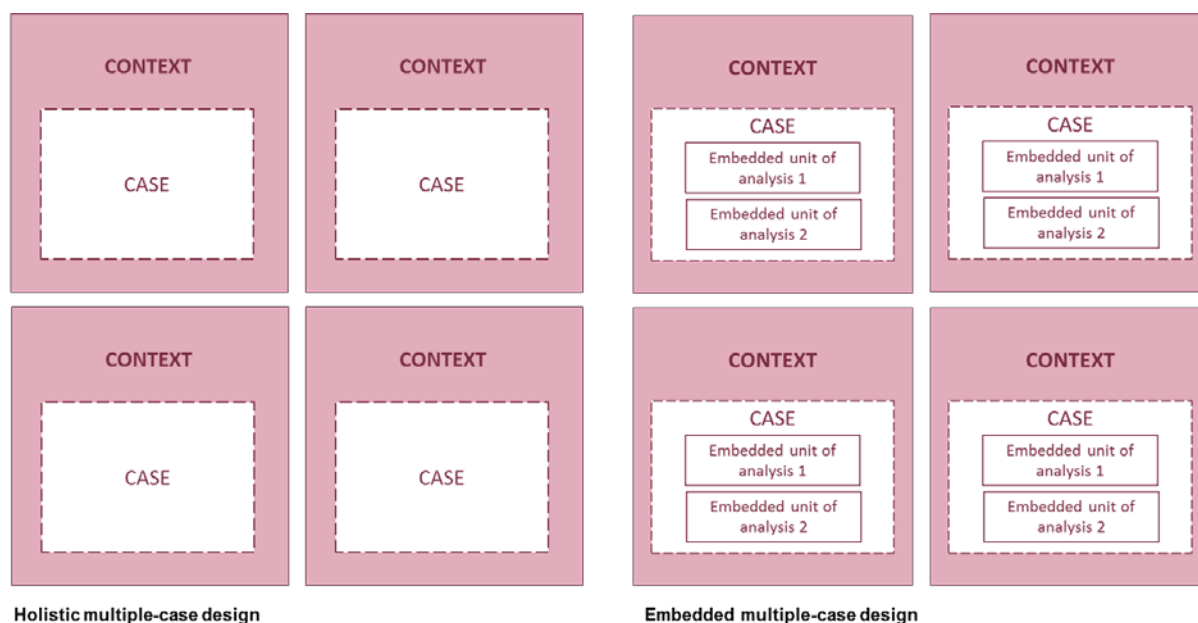


Figure 3-1: Basic types of multiple-case designs

Source: adapted from Yin (2014:50)

Should there be more than one unit of analysis such as in an embedded design, each would require a different case study whilst having its own research design and data collection strategy (Yin, 2014: 32). In light of this, transport collaboration was the only unit of analysis identified for the present study, thus a holistic multiple-case design was chosen.

3.2.2 Research questions

The ultimate purpose of the exploration was to expose the fundamental composition of transport collaboration between humanitarian organisations and private transport providers so as to establish a framework for the realisation of strategic CSI. The study proposes tentative answers to, specifically, three exploratory 'what' questions and one explanatory 'how' question. The research questions sought to investigate what attributes define collaboration (RQ1) and, considering that each collaboration is unique, question two asks how the attributes vary (RQ2). As strategic CSI is the highest achievement of collaboration, the third research question seeks to uncover what combination of attributes are likely to result in strategic CSI (RQ3). The final research question uncovers the subsequent levels of collaboration according to their unique composition of attributes, with strategic CSI considered the highest possible level (RQ4).

'How' questions are typical of studies where theory is nascent and have the aim of suggesting novel connections or operational links in the phenomena (Edmondson & McManus, 2007: 1158; Yin, 2009: 9). At the same time, 'what' questions typically have the goal of developing propositions for further inquiry. Both are considered a justifiable rationale for conducting case

studies (Yin, 2009: 9) particularly since they encourage the discovery of the more holistic characteristics of a phenomena – which is distinctive of case study research (Yin, 2009: 4).

Furthermore, a case study approach enables the researcher to involve in the study the contextual conditions pertinent to the cases at hand (also illustrated in Figure 3-1) for which other approaches do not allow (Palmberger & Gingrich, 2014: 97; Yin, 2014: 16). Fittingly, in order to enhance the relevance and potential application of the study's findings, it was critical to explore how humanitarian organisations and transport providers engage in collaboration in reality (Pedraza Martinez *et al.*, 2010: 409).

3.2.3 Definition and selection of cases

Eisenhardt (1989:537) emphasizes that the selection of cases is atypical when building theory from case study research than when conducting hypothesis-testing research. Therefore, theoretical sampling, in which cases are chosen for theoretical rather than statistical reasons, is the most applicable sampling method (Eisenhardt, 1989: 537; Yin, 2014: 61) and consequently the method applied in this study.

In exploratory case studies, evidence must be examined from different perspectives in order to produce quality research (Yin, 2009: 187). Consequently, each case of the present study comprises of a humanitarian organisation that runs a development programme, as well as its respective transport provider. This is to ensure that the collaboration is explored from both a humanitarian and commercial perspective. The humanitarian organisations are registered NPOs except for *Hippo Roller* which is classified as a “social enterprise”. The organisation cannot offer a tax rebate should a company partner with them as a CSI, but that does not discount *Hippo Roller's* eligibility as a partner for a CSI transport collaboration. The research participants of each entity in the case deal directly with one another in the collaboration.

The cases represented in the study are not those that were originally planned for. Case A was added only later in the data collection process. Initially, parties from a different transport collaboration were contacted; however, due to difficulty in reaching the transport provider of the collaboration, the case had to be removed. *67 Blankets* and *Stuttaford Van Lines* were contacted in order to replace the original participants. The final cases of the study are summarised in Table 3-1:

Table 3-1: Summary of cases

Case Study	Humanitarian Organisation	Transport Provider
A	67 Blankets	Stuttaford Van Lines
B	Operation Smile South Africa	DHL Global Forwarding
C	Santa Shoebox Project	Laser Logistics
D	Hippo Roller	3Wings Logistics

Eisenhardt (1989:545) points out that there is no ideal number of cases that should be selected for any case study, especially since sampling logic is not used in case study research (Yin, 2014: 61). Instead, Yin (2014: 67) asserts that one should consider the number of replications that one would like to have in the study when deciding how many cases to select. In line with this, four cases were selected so that two predicted similar results (literal replication) and another two predicted contrasting results but for anticipatable reasons (theoretical replication) (Yin, 2014: 57). Typically, a number between four and ten cases is identified as a most sufficient number to produce quality case study research (Eisenhardt, 1989: 545; Palmberger & Gingrich, 2014: 97).

Much like the recommendation by Yin (2014: 57) to use a combination of theoretical and literal replications, Eisenhardt (1989: 537) highlights the value in selecting polar-type cases to enhance the generalisability of case study findings. Thus, the cases selected for this study represent differing types of collaboration.

3.2.3.1 *Literal replications*

Cases A and B represent higher-level transport collaborations, where transport is provided by a single provider free of charge. Additionally, the collaboration is integrated into business activities, although on varying levels, and provides benefits for both parties in more than one aspect. These epitomise literal replications whereby attributes of collaboration with similar intensity leading to a similar impact were expected between them due to their classification as high-level collaborations.

3.2.3.2 *Theoretical replications*

Yin (2014: 204) recommends seeking alternatives that most seriously challenge the assumptions of the case study. In exploratory case studies, the analysis of evidence from different perspectives entrenches the overall quality of the study. Thus, the two forms of transport provision identified as major alternatives to cases A and B's collaboration were firstly, a cross-sector relationship whereby transport is provided free of charge; yet, with contractual limitations and little integration (represented by case C). Secondly, the *ad hoc* use of transport services whereby the humanitarian organisation seeks transport provision from the provider with the best offering at the time of need (represented by case D).

Both cases C and D represent lower-level collaborations that demonstrate more client-business relationships, which might also imply no collaboration at all. Although each share the same fundamental attributes as cases A and B, the attributes were anticipated to demonstrate a weaker intensity. Thereby substantiating the cases' qualification as lower-levels of collaboration. On the other hand, cases C and D held the potential to reveal that although

cases A and B are considered high-level collaborations, they might operate just the same as low-level collaborations and do not find any greater advantage from their high-level collaboration than at a low-level collaboration. All of the above provided a comprehensive base on which to conduct an exploratory study.

3.2.4 Overview of data collection and analysis

Data collection comprised of eight semi-structured face-to-face interviews with participants from four different collaborations between a transport provider and humanitarian organisation. Data from the interviews was transposed into four case descriptions summarising the logistics of each collaboration. The descriptions were subsequently approved by the participants of the study. Data collection was guided by a case study protocol established at the beginning of the study. The protocol was designed by the researcher and outlined the measures and processes to be followed in the study. Whilst, data analysis was conducted using CAQDAS. The case descriptions were coded through two major cycles of coding. Within-case analysis and cross-case pattern search were the two analytic strategies employed in the coding cycles, respectively. Data analysis essentially revealed the attributes and associated degrees of transport collaboration.

3.3 DATA COLLECTION

Yin (2014: 110) points out that one of the most important sources of case study evidence is the interview and that in case study research, interviews resemble guided conversations rather than structured queries. Additionally, due to the nascent theory on which the study was established, together with the exploratory nature of the research, semi-structured face-to-face interviews with organisational informants were deemed most fitting as a form of data collection (Edmondson & McManus, 2007: 1162; Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009: 323; Pedraza Martinez *et al.*, 2010: 409).

3.3.1 Semi-structured interviews

In preparation for the semi-structured interviews, a list of key themes was sent to each of the representatives of the humanitarian organisations and transport providers before their individual interview. The key themes were based on the attributes of collaboration identified in the theoretical framework (Chapter Two, Section 2.5.2). Each interview began by addressing the questions that had been prepared under each key theme to guide the conversation. However, the questions covered in each interview varied from interview to interview and were not restricted to the interview guide, as is the nature of semi-structured interviews (Saunders *et al.*, 2009: 320).

For the humanitarian organisations, the main aim of the interviews was to explore how the transport provider meets their transport needs and how transport provision contributes to the expansion of their programme. For the transport providers, interviews were geared toward understanding how the transport provision to the humanitarian organisations is synchronised with everyday business and how the collaboration is a benefit or impediment to everyday business.

As stated by Saunders *et al.* (2009: 320), during semi-structured interviews, the researcher may omit some questions given a specific organisational context that is encountered in relation to the research topic. This confirmed the appropriateness of semi-structured interviews for exploratory case study research, because of the flexibility to take into account the context of a phenomenon and not only phenomenon itself. As such, additional questions were probed during the interviews according to the contextual conditions of each case. Such questions were prompted by the answers of the research participants to previous questions in order to better explore the collaboration in its context and to produce a fuller account (Saunders *et al.*, 2009: 332). Additionally, in order to avoid bias, the researcher's understanding of a particular topic during discussion was tested by repeating the explanation that was provided by the research participant back to him/her in the researcher's own words (Saunders *et al.*, 2009: 334).

Each interview was audio-recorded with the permission of the research participants and the average duration of an interview was 60 minutes. The interviews were transcribed within a day of the interview, inadvertently in obedience to the twenty-four-hour rule (Pedraza Martinez *et al.*, 2010: 409). Appendix B is included as an example of one of these interview transcripts. Details of the interviews with the research participants are displayed in Table 3-2.

Table 3-2: Research interviews and participants

Humanitarian Organisations				
Case Study	Organisation name	Date and location of interview	Research participants	Position
A	67 Blankets	20 September 2016 Steyn City (67 Blankets HQ), Johannesburg	Carolyn Steyn Sharon Barkhuizen Jaco Lötter	Founder & Chief Executive Officer Public Relations Regional Administrator
B	Operation Smile South Africa	24 August 2016 Operation Smile, Bellville	Grizelda Noble Sean Robson	Admin & Logistics Coordinator Communications Coordinator
C	Santa Shoebox Project	4 August 2016 Stellenbosch	Debbie Zelezniak Fiona Sander	Chief Executive Officer Operations Manager
D	Hippo Roller	1 July 2016 Hippo Roller HQ, Chartwell	Grant Gibbs Laura Rigby	Executive Director Customer Relationship Manager
Transport Providers				
Case Study	Company name	Date and location of interview	Research participants	Position
A	Stuttaford Van Lines	14 September 2016 Stuttaford Van Lines, Johannesburg	Rocco Olivier Samantha Voss Karin Steyn	National Marketing Manager Accounts Manager (Corporate Development) Accounts Manager (Corporate Development)
B	DHL Global Forwarding	7 September 2016 DHL Global Forwarding, Johannesburg	Ciaran Wheeler	Head: Marketing & Communications Sub-Saharan Africa
C	Laser Logistics	31 August 2016 Laser Logistics, Kuilsrivier	Johann Pretorius Hotze van Heerden	Chief Executive Officer Distribution Manager
D	3Wings Logistics	6 September 2016 3Wings Logistics, Boksburg	Paul de Jager Hanjo de Jager	Founder & Chief Executive Officer Co-Founder & Human Resources Manager

Representatives from all eight research participants availed themselves for face-to-face interviews. However, *Laser Logistics* initially limited their participation to answering an e-questionnaire. This questionnaire was the document of key themes and related questions used to guide the other interviews. Once it was realised that all of the other participants agreed to face-to-face interviews, an appeal was made to *Laser Logistics* to participate in a face-to-face interview as well. Thereafter, a face-to-face interview was indeed set up and conducted with a different respondent from the company but one whom was also knowledgeable about *Laser Logistics'* collaboration with *Santa Shoebox Project* (SSB). The interview complemented the questionnaire initially answered electronically by *Laser Logistics'* first respondent and proved to provide richer data than the e-questionnaire alone.

Initial interviews were carried out between June 2016 and September 2016. Although interviews were scheduled with one main contact person, each entity invited additional colleagues (except in the case of *DHL*) to participate for part of or all of the discussion which

proved particularly valuable. The interaction between the two participants during the study provided a richer collection of information than if there had been only one participant. This was because of how one participant would add to, confirm, disagree or elaborate on the answers of the other participant. In the case of *Laser Logistics*, the two contacts did not sit in on the same meeting. The CEO of *Laser Logistics* was the first respondent, followed up by the face-to-face meeting with the company's Distribution Manager. The e-questionnaire was brought into the interview and at times, probing questions were asked based on the too-brief answers from the questionnaire in order to gain a deeper explanation of a particular topic. After each interview, any questions that the participant could not answer in the interview (due to a lack of knowledge) were emailed to them within 24 hours of the interview and their answers were recorded in a case study database on Google Drive.

3.3.2 Case descriptions

The interview transcripts from the parties of each case were combined and translated into one single case description per collaboration, along with information from any supplementary documentation provided by the participant or discovered by the researcher. During the write up of the case descriptions, if any form of ambiguity within a particular collaboration was discovered, follow up questions were mailed to the relevant participants. The case description served to consolidate all the information into a comprehensive narrative of the collaboration in question. Yin (2009: 139) suggests that developing a case description forms part of data analysis. Although case descriptions in the present study were used for analysis purposes, the development of the descriptions themselves was not part of analysis. Accordingly, to avoid confusion, the descriptions should be viewed as a detailed summary of the data obtained during data collection procedures, void of any interpretation whatsoever.

The final case descriptions were sent to the relevant parties for approval before the commencement of data analysis. If there were any participant-noted errors, participants responded with an email; however, a telephonic conversation was held with *Laser Logistics* to make corrections and adaptations to the case description. Following which, SSB was mailed the case description that included *Laser Logistics'* corrections for their approval in order to ensure that there were no conflicting opinions between the two parties. This procedure was necessary for only this particular case because *Laser Logistics'* suggested corrections were substantial in comparison to the minor corrections suggested by the other participants. All email approvals of the case descriptions were stored in the case study database.

3.3.3 *Application of the case study protocol*

A case study protocol was established at the beginning of the research process. The protocol can be found in Appendix A. The protocol is not an official document, it is a rough plan which was set up prior to data collection to guide the research process.

The protocol was designed to guide the researcher in carrying out data collection from the cases within study (Yin, 2014: 84). Data analysis was included as only a brief section in the document as the protocol's intended focus was data collection. Furthermore, as unforeseen circumstances arose during the process of its implementation, the protocol was not updated. Rather, the circumstances are reported in this chapter. In total, the protocol of this study consisted of six main sections:

- 1) Case study overview
- 2) Data collection procedures
- 3) Data analysis techniques
- 4) Research quality provisions
- 5) Outline of case study report
- 6) Case study questions

Relevant to methodology are the data collection procedures, data analysis techniques and case study questions sections. In the data collection procedures section, the contact details of each of the research participants was recorded, although two of the original participants (a humanitarian organisation and respective transporter) fell out of the study during preparation due to a lack of cooperation. Also, the case study design was briefly identified and described. Additionally, a data collection plan was outlined. However, as can be expected, the proposed timeline did change during the research process. Yet, the main activities of the plan were still conducted in the order stipulated in the protocol. The method of data collection was outlined (namely interviews) and steps for both pre-interview preparation and post-interview consolidation were also established. These steps were closely followed throughout the data collection process.

The protocol did stipulate a procedure for a second round of interviews; however, the number of follow up questions after the actual interviews was not enough to substantiate a second round of interviews. Instead, research participants were requested to answer follow-up questions via email – these were added to the case study database. There were some cases where the research participants requested that they were provided some time to follow up on questions or queries that they could not attend to at the time of the interview. An email summarising these follow up questions and queries was then sent to these participants, at the latest, two days after the interview.

The next section included a short summary of predicted data analysis techniques. The final, “case study questions” section, was used to guide the researcher’s actual line of inquiry. Thus, the main goals behind the interviews to the transport providers and humanitarian organisations (respectively) were established in this section. It is important to note that the case study protocol is a tool intended for only the researcher (and no other audience) as a guide for the research process and as a supplement to the validity and reliability of the overall study. Indeed, the protocol proved to be a significant help during the process as it kept the researcher accountable to following a consistent research path. It also promoted mindfulness of the stages that were to follow, which prevented any major portions of the research process having to be either scrapped or redone to suit the subsequent stage of research.

3.3.4 *Quality measures during data collection*

There are three quality tests relevant to exploratory case study research: external validity, construct validity and reliability (Yin, 2014: 45). External validity is accounted for in the replication logic of the multiple-case study design (see Section 3.2.1). Whereas, construct validity and reliability are the dominant quality measures taken into consideration during data collection. Table 3-3 details the application of a number of tactics suggested by Yin (2014: 45) and Saunders *et al.* (2009: 327) to ensure construct validity and reliability during data collection.

Table 3-3: Summary of quality measures during data collection

Tests	Case study tactic	Application in the study	Reference
Construct Validity	Define 'collaboration' in terms of specific concepts	Collaboration was defined in terms of the attributes of collaboration identified by Austin (2000: 72) that agreed best with other extant theories of collaboration.	(Yin, 2014: 47)
	Identify operational measures that match the concepts above	The varying degrees of collaboration attributes were used as the measure for the differing collaborations represented in the case study.	(Yin, 2014: 47)
	Use multiple sources of evidence & implement data triangulation through multiple sources	Documents were collected from research participants in the form of annual reports, financial reports, newsletters, brochures and presentations which were stored in the case study database. Certain webpages and online articles were also taken into account. Thus, a total of three sources of evidence were addressed: interviews, organisational documents and online sources.	(Yin, 2009: 42,121)
	Establish chain of evidence	A case study database included a bibliography of documents as proof of a chain of evidence in the study. It was also applied as a checklist of documents to ensure that all the documents received from participants were considered during the write up of case descriptions.	(Yin, 2009: 42)
	Have key informants review draft case study report	Research participants were each asked to review the case descriptions to check for accuracy and many of them used the opportunity to make clarifications, corrections and emphases to their respective cases.	(Yin, 2009: 42, 183)
	Clarify questions in the interview, clarify meanings of responses by probing and asking from a variety of angles	In the cases where an interviewee did not understand a question, it was rephrased and if the question was still considered not fully answered, the interviewer probed further.	(Saunders <i>et al.</i> , 2009: 327)
	Provide interviewee with list of themes prior to interview	A list of themes was emailed prior to each participant's interview based on the main attributes of collaboration identified in literature.	(Saunders <i>et al.</i> , 2009: 328)
Reliability	Document procedures	The data collection in the study was guided by the case study protocol and documented further in the methodology.	(Yin, 2009: 44)
	Use case study protocol	The case study protocol guided the collection process and its stipulated procedures were followed throughout collection. Wherever the procedures indicated in the protocol were not followed, it was explained in the methodology section.	(Yin, 2009: 44)
	Develop case study database	A case study database was created and kept up to date throughout the duration of data collection. It holds all the raw data (documents, follow up emails, interview transcripts and recordings) which contributed to the final conclusions of the study and can be accessed at any time.	(Yin, 2009: 44)
	Maintain the chain of evidence	Firstly, each case study description cited the relevant portions of the case study database. Important to note is that not all organisation documentation was necessary to cite, however it was all consulted before the case description write-up to ensure that no information from interviews conflicted with external data sources. Secondly, evidence was included in the methodology of the circumstances under which the data was collected; finally, the circumstances were consistent with the procedures in the case study protocol.	(Yin, 2014: 127)
	Do not impose own beliefs or frame of reference through the questions asked	By means of clarifying the meanings of research participants' responses during the interviews, interviewer bias was eliminated.	(Saunders <i>et al.</i> , 2009: 326)
	Provide interviewee with list of themes prior to the interview to allow them to assemble supporting organisational documentation	A list of themes prior to each participant's interview was emailed to them so that they had the opportunity to assemble supporting organisation documentation, which many of the participants did indeed do.	(Saunders <i>et al.</i> , 2009: 328)
	Questions need to be phrased clearly and asked in a neutral tone	Questions were phrased clearly and were asked in a neutral tone as far as possible, in order to prevent interviewer bias.	(Saunders <i>et al.</i> , 2009: 332)

Construct validity involves the consideration and application of the correct operational measures for the concepts being studied (Yin, 2014: 46), the concepts in the present study being those that revolve around collaboration. A critique of case study research is firstly, when a case study researcher fails to develop a sufficiently operational set of measures and

secondly, when “subjective” judgements (ones that tend to favour a researcher’s preconceptions of the topic at hand) are used to collect the data (Yin, 2014: 46). To prevent this, collaboration was first defined in terms of specific concepts related to the original objectives of the study. Thereafter, operational measures, namely the varying degrees of collaboration attributes, were identified as a means to measure collaboration. Furthermore, these attributes were defined on the basis of a number of different authors’ theories on collaboration. Both the concepts and measures that were identified, were born from extant literature, thereby reaffirming their validity.

A major strength of case study research is the use of different sources of evidence. Indeed it is found that case studies using multiple sources of evidence were rated more highly, in terms of their overall quality, than single-source studies (Yin, 2014: 119). In terms of triangulation, multiple sources promotes the development of “converging lines of inquiry” which better validates a study’s final conclusions as the conclusions were drawn from more than one source of information (Yin, 2014: 120). In the present study, interview data was corroborated with information from company reports, newsletters, brochures and presentations as well as online sources. Moreover, interviewing representatives from both sides of each case of collaboration also played a role in triangulation.

Establishing a chain of evidence is most relevant to enhancing the reliability of a study; at the same time however, due to the efforts of establishing a chain of evidence, the present study’s construct validity was also enhanced, and thereby increased the overall quality of the study (Yin, 2014: 127). Requesting that research participants review the case study report increases construct validity because of how their corrections augment the accuracy of the study (Yin, 2014: 199). In the present study, it was the case descriptions that were reviewed by the respective research participants for adaption before proceeding with data analysis.

A high level of validity regarding semi-structured interviews is made possible when questions are clarified and meanings of responses are probed. This allows the researcher to gain greater access to the participants’ knowledge and experience and it enables a sounder derivation of the participants’ intended meaning from their verbal answers (Saunders *et al.*, 2009: 327). Saunders *et al.* (2009: 328) also speak of how providing a list of themes to the research participants before an interview promotes both validity and reliability in that it allows them the opportunity to gather supporting documents, which is the initial enabler of data triangulation.

Reliability professes that should another researcher follow the same procedures outlined in a particular study, whilst conducting the same case study over again, he/she should arrive at the same findings and conclusions as the original author (Yin, 2014: 48). However, taking into account the present study’s use of semi-structured interviews, it would be unrealistic to

anticipate that these could be exactly replicated by other researchers (Saunders *et al.*, 2009: 328). Considering the objectives of the present study, it would have been nonsensical to have conducted structured interviews because they do not allow for the flexibility of probing and clarification that semi-structured interviews offer. Nevertheless, the questions asked in each of the interviews did not vary dramatically from the interview script, but differed only around operational factors. Indications about the collaboration were then deducted from these answers.

Oftentimes, the deep probing was not necessary as sufficient evidence about the operations of a collaboration was provided from the interviewees' first answers. Sometimes the probing took place in the interview itself, alternatively a follow up email was sent to the participant when information appeared unclear during the process of writing up the case description. Moreover, the case study protocol clearly stipulated the ultimate goal of interviews with the humanitarian organisations and transport providers respectively. Thus, if a later researcher had to replicate the study with these very same goals, similar results may actually be possible even with the use of semi-structured interviews.

In order to, hypothetically, allow another researcher to repeat the present study, all procedures were documented in both the case study protocol and methodology. In addition to the case study protocol, a case study database provides a compilation of all the raw data from the sources in the study which strengthens its reliability. The reader would, thus, have the opportunity to review the data that led to the study's conclusions. In other words, the data was not hidden in the case study among the researcher's own interpretations. Furthermore, the case descriptions themselves were written up solely from the evidence found in the case study database, without any bias of the researcher. The chain of evidence followed through the study allows the reader to follow the derivation of any evidence from the research questions to the ultimate conclusions of the study (Yin, 2014: 127).

The concern about reliability in semi-structured interviews is further related to interviewer and interviewee bias (Saunders *et al.*, 2009: 326). Hence, the need to put measures in place to avoid such biases. A first measure is clearly phrased questions to ensure interviewee understanding which cements the reliability of the information obtained from their answers. Secondly, the use of probing questions produces a fuller account of the topic. Finally, the provision of themes before each interview allows research participants to better prepare themselves for the discussion which naturally increases the accuracy and, therefore, reliability of the information obtained (Saunders *et al.*, 2009: 328).

3.4 DATA ANALYSIS METHODS

Data analyses was conducted using CAQDAS, namely *ATLAS.ti* version 8. A combination of inductive and deductive methods was used during the conduction of data analysis. Additionally, a unique combination of coding techniques that best suited the study were employed.

3.4.1 *Analytic strategy*

There were two major phases of analysis, namely within-case analysis and cross-case analysis, during which the case descriptions were coded for the purpose of answering the research questions.

Throughout both within-case and cross-case analyses, it was deemed most important to respect the uniqueness of the cases at hand. Therefore, although there was a temptation to directly apply the theoretical framework when coding, it was quickly discovered that this would be to disregard the unique contextual conditions of the cases to which existing theory cannot be exactly applied. Thus, the phases of analyses revealed an analytic strategy that combined both an inductive and deductive approach.

3.4.1.1 *Within-case analysis*

The beginning of the journey of analysis began with within-case analysis which held the purpose of becoming “intimately familiar” with each case in isolation (Eisenhardt, 1989: 540). This process highlighted the emergence of patterns unique to each case, including similarities, differences, frequency, sequence and so forth (Eisenhardt, 1989: 540; Saldaña, 2013: 6). During within-case analysis, each case description was coded using the CAQDAS. The cases were first analysed consecutively, that is one case was analysed at a time. This was to prevent the premature conjecture of cross-case patterns.

Analysis did initially commence by coding the data through the lens of the theoretical framework, specifically the attributes of collaboration as identified in literature. Thus, when coding the case descriptions there was continuous referral to the theoretically defined attributes, which proved to be a helpful method to begin analysis. Though, as analysis progressed, an inductive approach reigned naturally superior where codes were defined according to what each case uniquely revealed and not necessarily in strict accordance with the theoretical framework. This emphasis on theory construction, rather than the application of current theories to new data, is an approach familiar to grounded theorists (Thornberg & Charmaz, 2014: 155).

The combination of deductive and inductive approaches to analysis is a strategy supported by Saunders *et al.* (2009: 490). This is due to the way in which commencing from a theoretical

perspective firstly links the research into the existing body of knowledge and provides an initial analytical framework. Whilst, secondly, the incorporation of an inductive approach guards against the event that theoretical constructs are applied to the cases of the study even though, in reality, they deviate excessively from them.

3.4.1.2 *Cross-case pattern search*

Only once within-case analysis was complete, did the second cycle of coding begin across the cases simultaneously. During the cross-case portion of analysis, the codes and categories that were identified during within-case analyses were refined and developed further to produce a final set of codes that could be applied across the cases.

While coding, the “constant comparative method” was applied which compared data with data, data with code and code with code, to identify the similarities and differences across the cases (Thornberg & Charmaz, 2014: 158). The value of a qualitative comparative approach is in understanding rather than measuring difference (Palmberger & Gingrich, 2014: 95); hence, cases were not compared with one another to rank one as better than another. Indeed, new categories and concepts materialised during this phase (Eisenhardt, 1989: 541) and, at the same time, certain categories and concepts from the first coding cycle fell away. Important to note is that the theoretical framework was still referred to during cross-case analysis although it was not directly applied to analysis per se.

3.4.1.3 *Coding techniques*

A code in qualitative investigations is a word or short phrase that symbolically assigns an essence-capturing and/or evocative attribute that simultaneously categorises, summarises and accounts for each segment of data (Saldaña, 2013: 3; Thornberg & Charmaz, 2014). In the present study, the data that was coded was founded in the four case descriptions. Before the commencement of coding, a brief coding plan was established to guide the analysis based on coding processes as suggested by a combination of extant literature.

Coding is a cyclical process (Saldaña, 2013: 8) in which researchers typically employ two major cycles of coding with differing techniques before drawing final conclusions. As mentioned previously, in the present study within-case analysis contained the first cycle of coding and cross-case analysis constituted second cycle coding. The overarching coding method employed was eclectic coding. Eclectic coding applies a multiple coding techniques during the first cycle of coding; and a more select number of techniques during the second cycle of coding (Saldaña, 2013: 188).

3.4.2 *First cycle coding*

First cycle coding refers to those processes that happen during initial coding where ideas are merely noticed and collected (Frieze, 2012: 108). Initial coding (also named ‘open coding’) is where the data is broken down into discrete segments and does not follow any systemic formula (Saldaña, 2013: 100). Rather, a number of different coding techniques can be employed during initial coding – whatever best breaks down the data. In this way, initial coding provides analytic leads for further exploration; accordingly, all the codes uncovered during this cycle are “tentative and provisional” (Saldaña, 2013: 101).

First cycle coding in the present study applied up to six different coding techniques, namely holistic coding, simultaneous coding, descriptive coding, subcoding, values coding and attribute coding. First cycle coding began by applying an appropriate code to a data segment that discussed a particular topic. Topics as such could have changed line after line or paragraph after paragraph; therefore, the length of the coded segment was determined by the topic in discussion and not by any standard-measure of length. This is called holistic coding. Holistic coding attempts to identify basic themes in the data by coding perhaps whole paragraphs or sections rather than coding only line-by-line. It is a method deemed suitable for preparatory groundwork for more detailed coding of the data (Saldaña, 2013: 142).

There were occasions where a section of data discussed more than one topic and so simultaneous coding arose inevitably. Simultaneous coding occurs when two or more codes are applied to the same segment or sequential segments of text (Saldaña, 2013: 142). Simultaneous codes included varying combinations of codes such as different description codes, attribute codes or a combination of descriptive and inferential codes, value codes and subcodes.

Descriptive codes are those that summarise in a word or short phrase the basic topic of a data segment (Saldaña, 2013: 88). Descriptive codes in the present study were those that labelled a characteristic of collaboration that was explicitly revealed by the text (such as the different activities) but there were also inferential codes that labelled less explicit characteristics of collaboration (such as attitudes or motivations). Most of the inferential codes could be categorised as “value codes” as the code revealed the participant’s values, motivation or attitude toward the collaboration (Saldaña, 2013: 110).

Subcodes were created to code topics that came in varying forms. A subcode is a primary code that is tagged with another code (Saldaña, 2013: 77). For instance, the first cycle of coding revealed subcodes for challenges, expenses and communication as there were varying kinds of challenges, expenses and communication. An attribute code was initially applied to each case description as well.

Attribute codes usually appear at the beginning of a data set rather than embedded within it and they note basic descriptive information about the proceeding data (Saldaña, 2013: 70). The attribute codes during first cycle coding were applied to note whether a case description described free transport provision or paid transport provision. However, these were later removed during second cycle coding. After the first cycle of coding, a total of 131 codes were identified across the cases.

3.4.3 Second cycle coding

Second cycle coding adds structure to the initial list of codes by developing a sense of categorical, thematic, conceptual, and/or theoretical organisation from the array of first cycle codes (Frieze, 2012: 108). The process of second-cycle coding refers to classifying, prioritising, integrating, synthesizing, abstracting and conceptualising codes (Frieze, 2012: 108). In this study, second cycle coding went through six dominant procedures which are illustrated in Figure 3-2 below. The first three procedures constitute code mapping and the following three are post code mapping procedures.

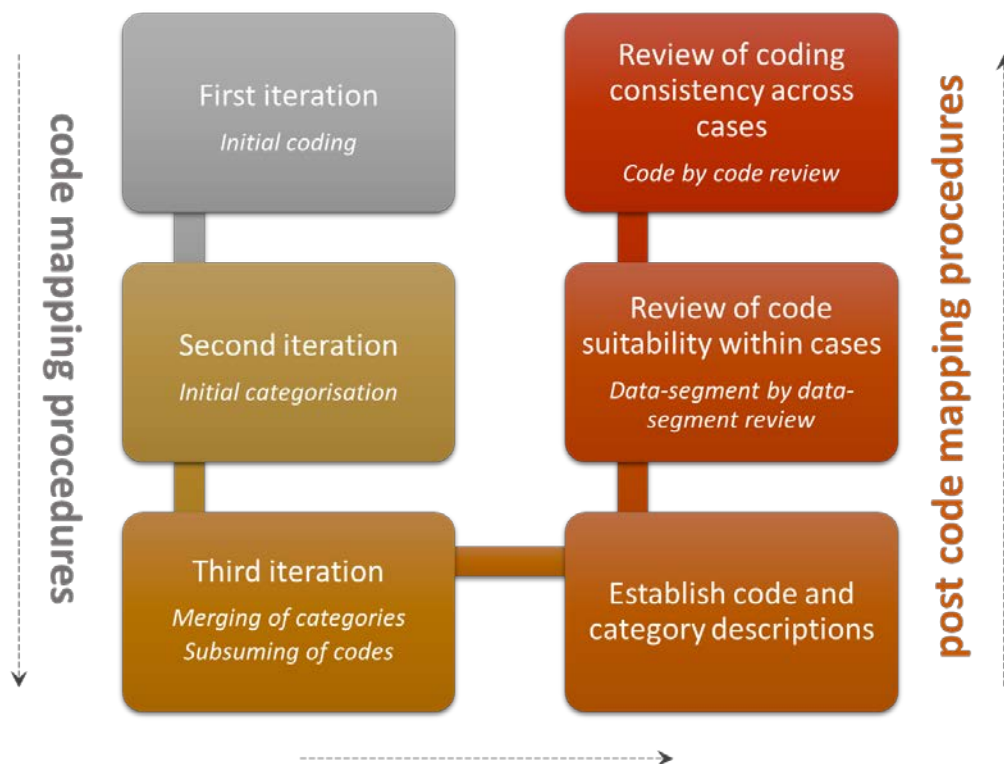


Figure 3-2: Second cycle coding procedures

3.4.3.1 Code mapping

The second cycle of coding began with the process of code mapping. Code mapping is the process by which the set of initial codes progresses through iterations of analysis to establish

focused codes and categories (Saldaña, 2013: 194). The initial set of 131 codes was processed through three iterations of analyses before the finalisation of the code list and main code categories (as illustrated in Figure 3-2). The iterations are listed in order below:

- 1) A Word document was created listing all the initial first cycle codes
- 2) Initial categorisation of the codes into seventeen different categories
- 3) The merging of categories and subsuming of initial codes under new subcodes

The first iteration was the simple listing of the initial codes. The second iteration distributed the initial codes under seventeen tentative categories as inferred by the labels and content of the initial codes. The categories essentially form the attributes of collaboration. The seventeen attributes and their labels that emerged came from simply comparing and sorting all 131 codes to determine which ones seemed to go together. Of the seventeen attributes, only three were reminiscent of the attributes identified in the theoretical framework namely “activities”, “provision” and “benefits” which can be likened to the theoretical attributes of “scope of activities”, “magnitude of resources deployed” and “strategic value” respectively. Upon attempting to categorise the initial codes under the attributes identified in the theoretical framework, it was discovered that the codes would have to be forced to fit under the theoretical attributes which would not have been a true representation of the collaborations of the study. Thus, second cycle coding relied heavily on an inductive process of categorisation.

The third iteration of analysis saw the merging of initial. For example, the codes listed under the initial categories of “provision” and “financial” were merged under one category named “provision” referring to the provision of physical and financial resources in the collaboration. The final compilation of categories was ultimately determined by the most dominant and recurring attributes across the cases in the study. Hence the coding categories are congruent to attributes of collaboration. Although the attributes appeared in slightly different forms across the cases, they were nonetheless distinguishable during coding. With the identification of the final categories (attributes), subcodes were established in order to describe each category’s variation. The initial codes were thus subsumed under fitting subcodes as illustrated in Table 3-4 below:

Table 3-4: Example of third iteration of code mapping

Financial + Provision = Provision	Subsume under these subcodes
company expense_not shared by firms	1. <u>Prov_Balanced</u>
company expense_standard	company expense_not shared by firms
charged standard rate_commercial	company expense_standard
charged standard rate_humanitarian organisation	charged standard rate_commercial
employee involvement_minimal	charged standard rate_humanitarian organisation
Company prefers transport offering than cash	employee involvement_minimal
limitations_resources	Company prefers transport offering than cash
company expense_unusual	limitations_resources
financial flexibility	2. <u>Prov_Favourable</u>
financials_management determines allocation	company expense_unusual
Company provides storage space	financial flexibility
financial predictions	financials_management determines allocation
Company expenses_shared by firms	Company provides storage space
Inter-firm collaboration	financial predictions
employee involvement_high	3. <u>Prov_Significant</u>
	Company expenses_shared by firms
	Inter-firm collaboration
	employee involvement_high

The first column of Table 3-4 lists all the initial codes that were distributed under the newly combined category, “provision”. The second column lists three subcodes (balanced, favourable and significant) under which the initial codes in column one were subsumed. What this means is that, for example, every code listed under “prov_balanced” would be relabelled “prov_balanced” in the CAQDAS. This process continued until all the initial codes were accurately subsumed into relevant subcodes under relevant categories. As mentioned previously, the subcodes were not randomly defined, but were determined by careful identification of the distinct levels of variation within each main category. Most often, the main categories varied in three distinct ways which is why, at the end of second cycle coding, most of the main categories contained three subcodes each. As the final categories were considered the ultimate attributes of collaboration, so the subcodes were considered the degrees of variation within the attributes.

3.4.3.2 *Post code mapping analysis*

The first step after code mapping was to prescribe each category a general description and each code a unique definition. Essentially, the definition of each code was regarded as a ‘decision rule’ thereby stating under what conditions a segment of data could be coded with that particular code. This promoted the consistency of coding across all the case descriptions.

Secondly, the case descriptions were reviewed line by line (segment by segment), one by one, to assess the suitability of the codes ascribed to the data segments within each case. During this process, certain codes were replaced with more applicable codes, some codes were removed from data segments altogether and other data segments were coded with more codes

than before. The process continued until each case was fully coded and deemed to be accurately coded. An important rule applied during coding was that a single data segment could not be coded with more than one code from the same category. If more than one code from the same category could be applied to a single data segment, it would have implied a poor and ambiguous definition of codes.

Finally, to further guarantee the accuracy and consistency of coding, each code was reviewed (code by code) using the CAQDAS. Thus, where the previous step reviewed the coding within each case one by one, the final step reviewed the coding across the cases simultaneously. Under each code, the CAQDAS lists the data segments across all the case descriptions that are ascribed that particular code. Reviewing the ascription of codes to data segments across the cases simultaneously guarded against the possibility that similar topics across the cases were coded under differing categories. It was during this final procedure that each coded segment was also tagged with a comment as to why it was coded the way that it was. Figure 3-3 and Figure 3-4 below illustrate an example of how a particular segment of data progressed from first cycle codes to second cycle codes after all second cycle coding procedures.

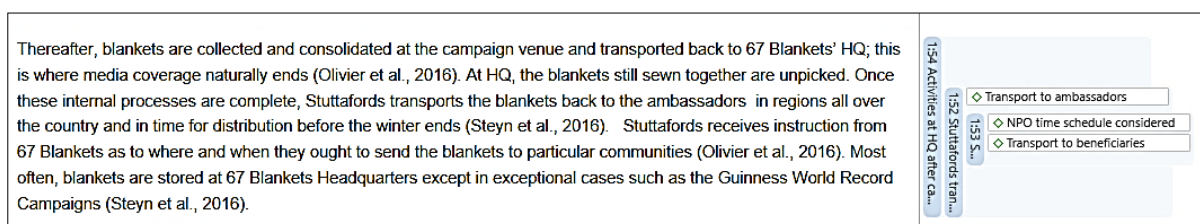


Figure 3-3: Example of data segment after first cycle coding

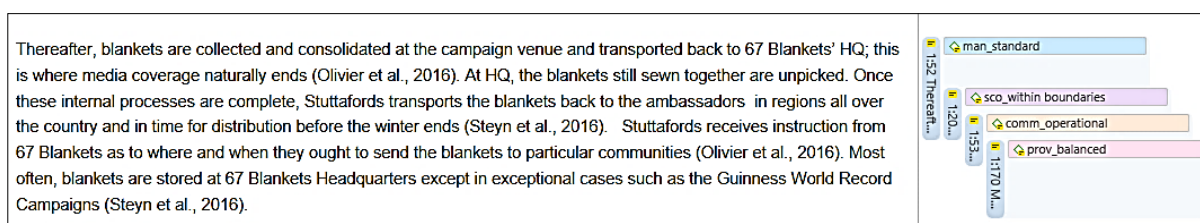


Figure 3-4: Example of data segment after second cycle coding

As illustrated in the figures above, the second cycle of coding narrowed the coding techniques used during first cycle coding in order to introduce conformity to the coding system. The codes became more focused and were each related to a major category, rather than broad descriptive codes as before. Also, the data segments analysed during second cycle coding were not as frequently large as during holistic coding in the first cycle. Simultaneous coding and subcoding reigned the dominant coding techniques during second cycle analysis.

At the end of the second cycle of coding, the seventeen initial categories were almost halved to nine categories. The nine categories represent nine major attributes of collaboration. The 131 initial codes were subsumed into 29 focused codes in total. Each code category contained

at least three, and not more than four, subcodes. The subcodes represent the degrees of variation within the attributes. The similarly coded segments were then collected together to summarise the findings of the study.

3.4.4 A key for network diagrams

The CAQDAS provided a useful feature to display various codes more comprehensively, named “network diagrams”. Chapter Five makes frequent reference to the networks. Therefore, Figure 3-5 below explains how a network diagram ought to be read.

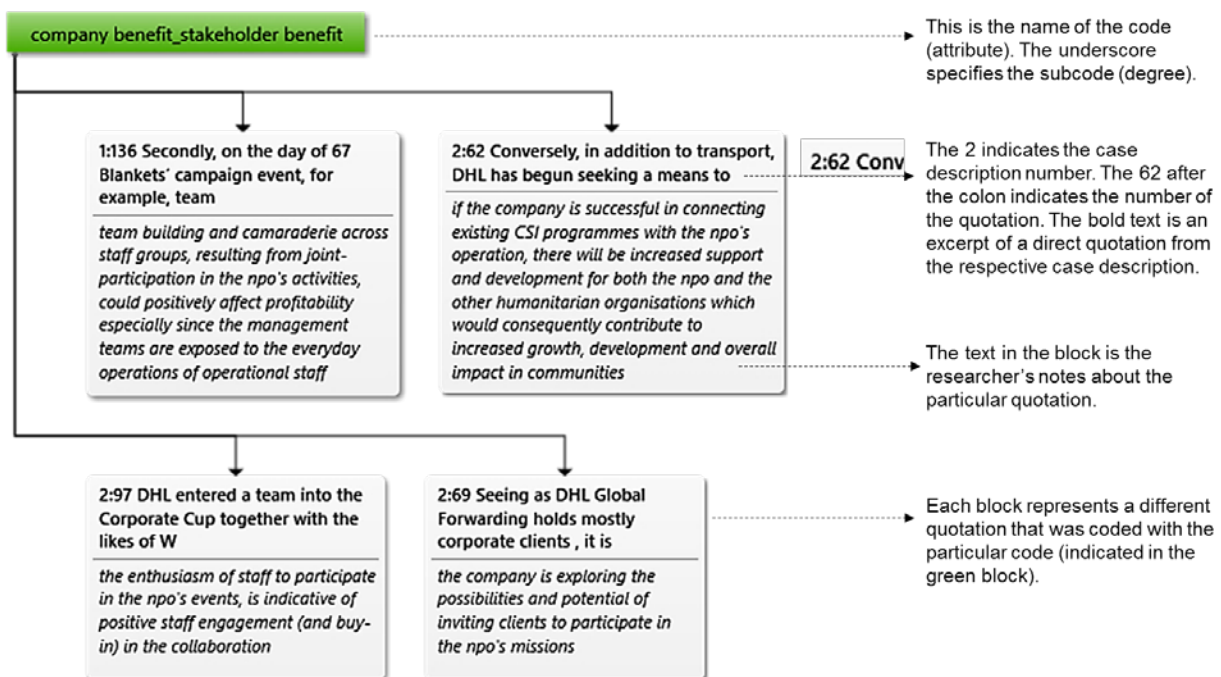


Figure 3-5: Network diagram explained

Each network diagram represents one subcode of a particular code. As previously explained, a code represents an attribute of collaboration and a subcode represents the degree of the attribute. Thus, the network diagrams provide a summarised view of the incidences in which the case descriptions display the characteristics of a particular degree of a particular attribute. The network diagrams are a connection between the findings of the study and the source of the findings. With the display of direct quotes from the case descriptions, the network diagrams are visual representations of the evidence that led to certain conclusions and findings related to the attributes and degrees of collaboration.

3.4.5 Memo writing

Saldaña (2013: 41) describes the purpose of memo writing as one to document and reflect on coding processes; code choices; how the process of inquiry is taking shape; and the emergent patterns, categories and subcategories, themes and concepts in the data. Throughout data

analysis, various memos were kept to record intriguing findings and thoughts, to record procedures of analysis and to record the coding process. Memos represent analytic work in progress (Frieese, 2012: 135) and they helped as sort of building blocks for the findings of the study. A research diary held all general thoughts and discoveries regarding the cases as randomly uncovered throughout analysis. A methodology memo was kept to record steps in data analysis. A separate first cycle coding memo and second cycle coding memo were kept each day so as not to lose coding-momentum day to day. The coding memos also recorded the progression from initial codes to focused codes. Saldaña (2013: 41) proposes that code choices also be recorded in the memos; however, in the present study code choices were substantiated in the comment-field of each coded segment.

3.5 SUMMARY

This chapter introduced the holistic multiple-case study research design which was chosen due to its replication logic and consideration of the wider context of transport collaboration. Theoretical sampling was the method used to choose the eight research participants. The participants comprise of four transport providers and four humanitarian organisations; thereby making up four cases, each with a transport provider and its humanitarian organisation counterpart. The four cases represent both literal and theoretical replications whereby, two cases predicted similar results (literal replication) and the other two predicted contrasting results but for anticipatable reasons (theoretical replication).

The data collection process was led by a case study protocol. Eight semi-structured face-to-face interviews were conducted with the participants during data collection, together with the accumulation of data from various other secondary sources to augment data triangulation. Throughout data collection, measures that ensured the reliability and construct validity of the study were taken into account. Data analysis was conducted using CAQDAS software, namely *ATLAS.ti* version 8. After data collection and analysis, the attributes of collaboration and their corresponding degrees were uncovered. This set the foundation for further discussion and for the drawing up of a framework for collaboration.

CHAPTER FOUR: **CASE DESCRIPTIONS**

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter is a collection of the empirical findings from interviews which were conducted with the eight participants of the study. They are recorded in four case descriptions, in the following order:

- A. *67 Blankets and Stuttaford Van Lines*
- B. *Operation Smile South Africa and DHL Global Forwarding*
- C. *Santa Shoebox Project and Laser Logistics*
- D. *Hippo Roller and 3Wings Logistics*

The secondary sources (such as various organisational documents and internet sources) that were consulted to triangulate the data obtained from the participants also form part of the case descriptions. The case descriptions essentially describe the collaborations according to the main attributes of collaboration identified by Austin (2000: 72) in the theoretical framework. Each is structured in the following sections:

- 1) A background and summary of the transport collaboration
- 2) An overview of the transport operations in the collaboration which provide insight into:
 - a. The extent of engagement and resource transfer
 - b. Planning and execution procedures
 - c. The challenges and limitations in the collaborations
- 3) An explanation of the financial structure and its implications on each party in the collaboration
- 4) Details about the managerial complexity of the collaboration, including the integration and interaction level between the collaborators
- 5) A summary of the benefits of the collaboration experienced by each party gives an indication as to how benefits are distributed between the them.

The case descriptions were written before data analysis and are, therefore, void of interpretation. They should be read as narratives which tell the story about the collaborations and the logistics behind them. In this way, the composition of transport collaboration could be extrapolated in the following chapters without any bias from the researcher.

4.2 CASE A: 67 BLANKETS AND TUTTAFORD VAN LINES

4.2.1 *General background and summary of transport operations*

In 2013, *67 Blankets* began as a challenge posed by Zelda la Grange (late former President Nelson Mandela's personal assistant) to South African philanthropist, Carolyn Steyn. Zelda challenged Carolyn to knit, sew or crochet 67 Blankets for Nelson Mandela Day. However, Carolyn realised that she would be unable to perform such a task alone, hence she made a call (through social media) upon friends, family and the wider community to assist. Hundreds of blankets were unexpectedly pledged for Nelson Mandela Day in July 2014 and by October, *67 Blankets* was awarded "Campaign of the Year" at the South African of the Year Awards (*67 Blankets*, 2015). *67 Blankets* is now a registered NPO with Section 18A status (South African Revenue Service, 2017) and is represented all over the world including England, the United States, India, Dubai, Cyprus and in various other countries in Africa (Steyn, Barkhuizen & Lötter, 2016). Blankets are collected throughout the year and are distributed across South Africa during the winter seasons. Naturally, transport enables the distribution of blankets and thus, collaboration with a transport provider grew to be a great benefit.

Stuttaford Van Lines' (henceforth, "*Stuttafords*") Johannesburg branch transports, free of charge, the donated blankets to *67 Blankets'* beneficiaries on a national and, to a certain extent, international scale (Olivier, Voss & Steyn, 2016). Carolyn Steyn first met *Stuttafords'* National Marketing Manager at an event, where she shared with him the prospects of her starting the humanitarian organisation. *Stuttafords* expressed interest in assisting with her cause with the original intention to make a difference, but the now ongoing collaboration has seen a number of spin-offs for the company in return (Olivier *et al.*, 2016).

Stuttafords transports goods for a number of other humanitarian organisations; however, *67 Blankets* is the biggest humanitarian operation that the company assists with in terms of logistics, time, effort and scale (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). *Stuttafords* provides manpower and volunteers for the operation and has, in the past, provided storage space for *67 Blankets*. However, the core focus of the collaboration is the ongoing cross-regional collection, consolidation and distribution of blankets from *67 Blankets'* ambassadors to the humanitarian organisation's beneficiaries in South Africa (Steyn *et al.*, 2016). In the experience of *67 Blankets'* organisers, the standard offer of the transporter is to transport "whatever *67 Blankets* want" (Steyn *et al.*, 2016).

4.2.2 *Transport operations (engagement and resource deployment)*

Stuttafords is Southern Africa's oldest removals and storage company, with fourteen branches located across Southern Africa (Stuttaford Van Lines, 2016: 5). The company started as a furniture removal company but has since grown to offer relocation services; archiving; and

office, pets, vehicles and fine arts moving via both sea and air freight (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). *Stuttafords* offers services nationally and internationally. Considering that there is no limitation on the goods that the company transports commercially, transporting blankets is not out of their range or capabilities.

Stuttafords receives numerous requests from humanitarian organisations for assistance and the company attempts to help them as far as they are able to. With that said, *Stuttafords* prefers to provide transport services rather than make cash contributions to humanitarian organisations (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). Currently, some of the other major humanitarian organisations that they transport for include Child Line and Smile Foundation (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). When making a decision on whether to assist a particular humanitarian initiative or not, *Stuttafords* gives preference to accredited charities and initiatives that can provide an 18A Certificate. Additionally, the company attempts to “strategically align” themselves with initiatives that offer the opportunity to engage with like-minded corporates and thus, potential future clients (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). Another consideration is the timing of a humanitarian organisation’s request for assistance.

Due to the nature of the removals business, the end of each month is always busy as well as during typical holiday times as in December. Therefore, commercial business is positioned as priority in such times; however, during the middle of the month *Stuttafords* have a greater capacity to help with non-commercial transporting (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). In this time period, *Stuttafords* makes contact with the humanitarian organisations or initiatives that they initially could not assist in order to offer their assistance during those quieter periods (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). This time preference also applies to their assistance to *67 Blankets*. *Stuttafords* is free to negotiate the dates of blanket deliveries with *67 Blankets*, based on when the company has the greatest availability of staff and vehicles (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). Essentially it is the unique situation, time, effort and return that determine the scale of assistance that *Stuttafords* would provide for a humanitarian organisation. In this case, the *67 Blankets* operation is considered large scale assistance and is continuously growing (Olivier *et al.*, 2016).

In terms of the structure of *Stuttafords*’ assistance to *67 Blankets*, the company finds it ideal to allocate blanket deliveries to vehicles that are scheduled to travel in the same direction as the beneficiary’s location; though, this is not always possible (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). The company owns a large fleet and is part of a far-stretching network and they do have the ability to observe (through online systems) when there is a truck in a certain area (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). How it works is that customers schedule their moves to and from various destinations and when a move is secured and destined for a particular destination (and there is available capacity on the vehicle for additional volume), then the “available” space is offered to the entire *Stuttaford Van Lines* Group to fill with loads earning revenue. This is advertised internally throughout the

Group by means of a “Pre-Advice” Excel document, sent by e-mail to all branches (Potgieter, 2017). Therefore, *Stuttafords* has opportunity to fill the available space with loads of blankets as well. Most often, however, *Stuttafords* sends a vehicle that is dedicated to only a *67 Blankets* delivery. This is due to beneficiaries’ locations that are not always positioned on the typical routes that *Stuttafords* trucks travel to get to paying clients (Olivier *et al.*, 2016).

There are two major components to *Stuttafords*’ transport offering to *67 Blankets*. The first component is cross-regional deliveries of blankets to *67 Blankets*’ beneficiaries throughout the year (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). Most of the in-province collection and delivery of blankets are carried out by members of the *67 Blankets* team or by the beneficiary facilities themselves (Steyn *et al.*, 2016). The second component is the transport of blankets to and from *67 Blankets*’ annual campaign. *Stuttafords* collects blankets from the *67 Blankets* ambassadors across the country, delivers them to the campaign venue, and then distributes them again throughout the country (Steyn *et al.*, 2016).

Although the core focus of *Stuttafords*’ service to *67 Blankets* is transportation, the company has both mobilised employees to volunteer at the annual campaign and has provided temporary storage space during large distributions. For instance, the first big campaign was held in 2014 where all the blankets collected were laid in front of the Union Buildings in Pretoria. All the blankets were stitched together to form one big blanket and consequently led *67 Blankets* to achieve the Guinness World Record for the “Largest Crochet Blanket in the World”. The blanket measured 3 377 square metres (67 Blankets, 2015). *Stuttafords* employees not only transported the blankets to the Union Buildings but also helped to offload and stitch the blankets together with *67 Blankets* volunteers (Olivier *et al.*, 2016; Steyn *et al.*, 2016).

In 2015, *67 Blankets* went to Drakenstein Prison (where Mandela was finally released) for that year’s campaign. The humanitarian organisation had partnered with the Department of Correctional Services to get prisoners involved in the making of blankets as a means of skills development and rehabilitation (Steyn *et al.*, 2016). Therefore, all the blankets made by prisoners around the country had to be transported to the Drakenstein Prison for the campaign. *67 Blankets* had the option to make use of the Department’s vans; however, the humanitarian organisation held greater confidence in *Stuttafords* and the company’s logistics capabilities. Thus, *Stuttafords* agreed to assist with the transport of blankets from prisons instead (Steyn *et al.*, 2016).

After the campaign event held in 2015 outside Drakenstein Prison, blankets had to be transported by *Stuttafords* to various prisons around the Western Cape in order to be washed and dried after having become wet. Whilst *Stuttafords* was in the process of collecting the blankets back from the prisons, before returning them to *67 Blankets*’ headquarters (HQ), they

were held in *Stuttafords'* warehouse until enough blankets were collected to fill truck loads (Steyn *et al.*, 2016). There have been other times in a year, not necessarily after a campaign, that *Stuttafords* has kept blankets in storage for distribution to beneficiaries (Olivier *et al.*, 2016).

Additionally, *Stuttaford* respond to a number of *ad hoc* requests. Owing to *67 Blankets'* donor-base being spread across the globe, *Stuttafords* have, for example, carried blankets from New York on one of their flights to South Africa (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). Although *Stuttafords* is able to perform customs clearances, in this instance the customs clearance had been outsourced to another supplier and *Stuttafords* merely assisted with the transport (Potgieter, 2017). Blankets are also collected from the airport by *Stuttafords* in these cases.

Other *ad hoc* occasions include those where there may be groups of donors who do not have access to transport, such as the elderly, that *Stuttafords* collects blankets from regardless of the load size (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). More trucks are sourced where loads are in excess of a specific truck's capacity, alternatively multiple loads are undertaken (Potgieter, 2017). Furthermore, in 2015 *67 Blankets* received a once-off R14 million donation of wool from an anonymous donor from whom *Stuttafords* collected and delivered to *67 Blankets* HQ, where *Stuttafords* staff were unpacking until the early hours of the morning (Steyn *et al.*, 2016). *67 Blankets* subsequently sent the wool out with *Stuttafords* to "all corners of South Africa" for people to make blankets; many of which *Stuttafords* then collected and brought back to HQ (Steyn *et al.*, 2016).

4.2.2.1 Planning

The planning process for a *67 Blankets* campaign-day begins when *67 Blankets* puts out a call on Facebook for donors to knit, sew or crochet blankets (Steyn *et al.*, 2016). *Stuttafords* then determines their logistical commitment. *67 Blankets* are typically unable to provide a precise number of all the anticipated blankets; therefore, *Stuttafords* makes a preliminary prediction on how much volume will be required so that the necessary vehicles can be planned for and provided (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). *Stuttafords* is fortunate, however, in that the bulk of the blankets are consolidated at Steyn City, where a fairly accurate assessment of volume can be determined. *Stuttafords* is aware of the volume that their trucks can carry and so they can schedule loads of blankets around this. For additional volume, *Stuttafords* fills trucks and adds more vehicles to the collections. Thereafter, they consolidate the loads at their warehouse facilities and load trucks to capacity for distribution across the country (Potgieter, 2017).

It is imperative that vehicles are the correct size so as not to send a vehicle (such as an inter-link truck versus a shuttle vehicle) that might be too big or too small for the number of blankets that are scheduled to be collected (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). Anticipated volume also provides an

indication to *Stuttafords* of how many staff members to send with the truck. This is to avoid situations where, for example, one assistant has to load an unexpectedly high number of blankets into a truck by himself/herself (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). A similar process is applied during commercial operations. When a client contracts *Stuttafords* for a move, one of the company's consultants surveys the client's possessions and assesses the most practical approach to the packing and loading processes (Stuttaford Van Lines, 2016: 7). Using this information, *Stuttafords* determines the kind of vehicle(s) and number of staff that would be required to transport the client's goods.

Factoring in that *Stuttafords'* paying clients could live anywhere in the country, scheduling vehicles is a fairly *ad hoc* process in day-to-day business (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). The only "set" schedule is that once a week *Stuttafords* does a long distance trip to the main centres of the country (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). Setting the possible dates for collection and delivery is, however, the first requirement of scheduling vehicles. Thereafter, the operations team considers the point of collection and the point of delivery and allocates a route that is the quickest and most efficient for each individual run (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). This very same process is used for planning blankets collection and deliveries (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). Alternatively, *Stuttafords* requests that donors or ambassadors drop off their blankets at the nearest *Stuttafords* depot for transportation, particularly if it is a small load of blankets (Olivier *et al.*, 2016).

4.2.2.2 Execution

Once the call goes out for donors to begin making blankets, various *67 Blankets* ambassadors prepare to receive blankets at their designated drop-off. Donors are requested to drop off their blankets at the nearest drop-off hosted by an appointed *67 Blankets* ambassador (Steyn *et al.*, 2016). At the drop-off, the ambassador manages the individual tagging of each blanket – each blanket is tagged with a unique number linked to a database that records the name and hometown of the blanket's donor. Donors are able to use their unique number to investigate where their blanket was eventually delivered. A *67 Blankets For Nelson Mandela Day* label is also sewed onto each blanket at the drop-off.

At this point, *67 Blankets* will have set appropriate collection and/or delivery dates together with the *Stuttafords* team; taking into account the time of the month that is most fitting for *Stuttafords* (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). *Stuttafords* treat *67 Blankets* operations the same as they do commercial client – that is, everything is formalised (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). For instance, the request for transport is put on *Stuttafords'* system as would a client's booking. As the service to *67 Blankets* is not invoiced to the humanitarian organisation (and there is no cost associated to the booking on the system), *Stuttafords* retains the invoice for record-keeping purposes (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). Job cards are then issued to the operations team and from that the entire

trip is planned; including which truck, driver and crew will be deployed (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). The specific resources required for the trips are typically planned the day before (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). A letter is sent to the client prior delivery indicating who the crew is, what day they will arrive and at what time (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). On the day of collection or delivery, the operations team ensure that the crew have everything needed for the job; such as cargo straps, plastic wrapping or boxes (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). Blankets are distributed throughout the year; therefore, *Stuttafords'* role in the *67 Blankets* operation from this point onward differs depending on whether the organisation is preparing for their annual campaign or not (Steyn *et al.*, 2016).

In the case of a campaign event, *Stuttafords* collects the blankets from the ambassadors at the various drop-offs when the blankets are ready and deliver them to *67 Blankets'* HQ for consolidation before transport to the campaign venue. Before transporting to the venue, *Stuttafords* finalises staff, vehicle and logistics provisions for the event (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). At the Drakenstein event, for example, *Stuttafords* transported 21 000 square metres of blankets (17 000 blankets) which required two inter-links (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). At the venue itself, the *Stuttafords* team assisted with the unpacking and sewing of the blankets to form the one giant blanket for Guinness World Records purposes. Commercially, unloading and unpacking of clients' possessions at the point of delivery is included in the company's standard service (Stuttaford Van Lines, 2016: 9).

It is during this time that *Stuttafords* uses the opportunity to collaborate with *67 Blankets* for maximum media exposure – something which is not necessarily planned in advance, as such opportunities evolve throughout the campaign period (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). Although, Carolyn Steyn uses every media opportunity to express thanks and give acknowledgement to *Stuttafords*, be it television or radio interviews (Steyn *et al.*, 2016). Moreover, *67 Blankets* had stickers made for the *Stuttafords* trucks specifically for the Drakenstein event which provided additional exposure for the company (Olivier *et al.*, 2016).

Thereafter, blankets are collected and consolidated at the campaign venue and transported back to *67 Blankets'* HQ; this is where media coverage ceases (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). At HQ, the blankets still sewn together are unpicked. Once these internal processes are complete, *Stuttafords* transports the blankets back to the ambassadors in regions all over the country and in time for distribution before the winter season ends (Steyn *et al.*, 2016). *Stuttafords* receives instruction from *67 Blankets* as to where and when they ought to send the blankets to particular communities (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). Most often, blankets are stored at *67 Blankets* Headquarters except in exceptional cases such as the Guinness World Record Campaigns (Steyn *et al.*, 2016).

The process of distributing blankets from storage typically takes place over a few months (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). There is flexibility as to when the blankets ought to be delivered, as long as they are delivered before winter ends (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). However, once *67 Blankets* communicates when and where a certain batch of blankets ought to be delivered, *Stuttafords* aims to get them to their destination as soon as possible whilst taking into account their commercial schedules (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). Regardless, *Stuttafords*' operations manager keeps in close communication with *67 Blankets* and the rest of the *Stuttafords* team throughout the entire execution process (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). Ultimately, there is no "set formula" to the execution leg of the collaboration, as it is considered an "organic" process (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). In line with this, there is not an official debriefing but rather phone calls between both *Stuttafords* and *67 Blankets* communicating delivery confirmations (Olivier *et al.*, 2016; Steyn *et al.*, 2016).

Depending on the size of the load, ambassadors handle blanket distribution to communities/beneficiaries within their own region. However, for loads of 500 blankets or more, *Stuttafords* assists with transportation to beneficiaries (Steyn *et al.*, 2016). As a company, *Stuttafords* commits to assist with *67 Blankets*' transport, with the understanding that the company shall try to optimise their resources. Hence, in the event where a small delivery vehicle could take the load, these runs are done by the beneficiaries themselves. Furthermore, *67 Blankets* appeals to their beneficiaries to collect their blankets from the ambassadors. However, in the cases where beneficiaries are unable to collect blankets (particularly the large loads) then *Stuttafords* delivers them to the beneficiaries (Steyn *et al.*, 2016). *67 Blankets* tries to avoid requesting *Stuttafords*' assistance for small loads (under 500 blankets) as they do not wish to "abuse" the *Stuttafords* collaboration for small runs (Steyn *et al.*, 2016). Although, in *67 Blankets*' general experience, *Stuttafords* always rise to the occasion (Steyn *et al.*, 2016).

4.2.2.3 *Challenges and limitations*

A major, unforeseen challenge was due to the effects of rain during the Drakenstein event in 2015. Rain at the event caused blankets to be dirtied by mud, thus adding an additional leg to the typical distribution process as blankets had to be cleaned before they were distributed to beneficiaries. The Department of Correctional Services' area commissioner agreed to allow the blankets to be washed at the laundry facilities of the various prisons in the Western Cape. Consequently, *Stuttafords* transported the blankets to the prisons in order to be washed and dried. The blankets were kept in a storage facility before being transported back to *67 Blankets*' HQ in Johannesburg (Steyn *et al.*, 2016). Where practicable, the *Stuttafords* branch closest in proximity would offer the storage at no charge. In this case the Johannesburg branch assisted

with the travelling vehicles to collect and take the blankets to the Cape Town branch's storage facility. Thus, it was a joint initiative by the branches (Potgieter, 2017).

Additional challenges are those which *Stuttafords* experience regardless of whether it is a paying customer or humanitarian organisation (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). In the more rural areas, which again could be the destination of either a *67 Blankets* delivery or a commercial client's delivery, a major challenge is poor road quality (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). For instance, *Stuttafords* once made a delivery to a farm which required *Stuttafords* trucks to travel on three kilometres of dirt road. As a result of poor road quality, the truck could not get to the actual farm so the recipient of the delivery had to meet the truck at the beginning of the dirt road in order to collect the delivery (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). Commercially, *Stuttafords*' vehicles operate weekly between main centres and remote areas, including the likes of fishing villages or farming communities (Stuttaford Van Lines, 2016: 7). Being a logistics specialist, *Stuttafords* attempts to guide the humanitarian organisations with which they work to understand the challenges that the company foresees. This is to ensure that the necessary precautions are put in place before the execution of the job (Olivier *et al.*, 2016).

In terms of limitations to the collaboration, there is neither a standing formal agreement nor any other limitations set by *Stuttafords* from a financial or physical capacity perspective (Olivier *et al.*, 2016; Steyn *et al.*, 2016). *Stuttafords* insist that "the sky is the limit" when it comes to providing assistance to *67 Blankets* (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). Although, *67 Blankets* are mindful of what is considered a "fair" request of *Stuttafords*. For instance, on one occasion *67 Blankets* made use of private transport to collect blankets from an ambassador in Limpopo because of their prior knowledge that the quality of the roads were not conducive for *Stuttafords*' vehicles (Steyn *et al.*, 2016). *67 Blankets* is permitted to make use of other transporters (private or commercial) should the need occur (Steyn *et al.*, 2016).

The strength of relationship is noted as an influential factor in the sustainability of *Stuttafords*' involvement with humanitarian organisations; where, if the parties get along well the relationship continues and grows (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). In the context of *67 Blankets*, the relationship is of such a nature that, should the organisation have a request that is outside of the present abilities of *Stuttafords*, *Stuttafords* would in turn seek assistance from *67 Blankets* (in the form of additional resources or other capacities) in order to complete the request successfully (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). On the other hand, if *Stuttafords* should begin to experience that *67 Blankets* is growing "too much" and that they are finding it difficult to effectively support them, the relationship is "comfortable" enough to express such limitations (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). Although, if *67 Blankets* could provide additional resources to *Stuttafords* in such cases, then the company would be willing to continue the service (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). However, these were indicated as only potential future limitations to the collaboration and have not yet been

encountered. Should *67 Blankets* begin to operate cross borders, *Stuttafords'* FIDI (Federation of International Furniture Removals) accreditation provides the potential to introduce international agents in their network to the concept of such a collaboration and its resulting benefits (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). Accordingly, there would be opportunity for *67 Blankets* to expand across international borders.

4.2.3 *Financial structure and implications*

All transport provided by *Stuttafords* to *67 Blankets* is free of charge, otherwise transport would have ranked as the humanitarian organisation's highest operational expense (Steyn *et al.*, 2016). The only transport related expenses on *67 Blankets'* account are the *ad hoc* use of private transport for small runs. Currently, the highest expense of the humanitarian organisation is wool (Steyn *et al.*, 2016). Staffing costs are absorbed by the Steyns' household budget as well as by Carolyn Steyn in her personal capacity (Steyn *et al.*, 2016). In order for *67 Blankets* to be sustainable, they require wool, transport and volunteers.

Some of the costs absorbed by *Stuttafords* include the associated cost when the trucks leave the yard and also direct operating costs such as fuel (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). A *Stuttafords* vehicle is manned by a driver and loader. In each instance, these employees would be paid per nine-hour day with a provision for overtime if they work on weekends or after hours (Olivier *et al.*, 2016) which, in the case of *67 Blankets*, they often do (Steyn *et al.*, 2016). Additionally, the vehicles' fuel and any wear-and-tear would be direct related expenses. Indirect expenses include the insurance charges, depreciation, tyres usage, license fees and all employment related expenses such as Unemployment Insurance, leave provisions and so forth (Potgieter, 2017). In the case of the annual campaigns, both *Stuttafords* Johannesburg and Cape Town pay their own expenses toward the initiative. The cost allocation would depend on the collecting branch and that branch would absorb the related expenses (Potgieter, 2017).

There are three predominant factors that influence the company's ability to absorb the costs of transport for *67 Blankets*. Firstly, the attitude of management and the board of directors (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). Management's buy-in and approval of the company's involvement in a project such as *67 Blankets* is required before the operations and corporate development teams can execute anything (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). Therefore, involvement in related humanitarian organisation operations begins with management, by whom all final decisions are made (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). Secondly, the vast infrastructure that the company owns means that their trucks, for example, are not 100% busy 100% of the time (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). In the months that people do not typically move or in the middle of many months, trucks are not always made use of. Therefore, idle vehicle fleets owing to quiet commercial operations provide the opportunity to assist humanitarian organisations (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). Thirdly, the

magnitude of *Stuttafords* as a business allows flexibility to use corporate resources for humanitarian efforts (Olivier *et al.*, 2016).

4.2.4 **Managerial complexity, integration and interaction intensity**

When managing the collaboration, *Stuttafords* is able to use spare capacity in trucks dedicated to clients fairly often because not all trucks are filled to capacity every time and the trucks travel all over the country (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). For instance, if clients are moving belongings from a two-bedroom house in Johannesburg to George, *Stuttafords* typically allocates a bigger truck to maximise effectiveness. In such a case, there would be space to fit in boxes of blankets for *67 Blankets*. The paying customer is not charged for the additional load, the blankets merely “piggy-back” on the commercial load (Olivier *et al.*, 2016).

Stuttafords prioritise their clients and thus include provisions so as not to inconvenience them in any way (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). If a load of blankets does piggy-back on a client’s load, then the blankets are separated well by the operations team so as to prevent the client’s goods from getting damaged (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). When transporting for paying clients, *Stuttafords* do share more than one client’s load on a truck; thus piggy-backing is not unusual for *Stuttafords* crew (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). If the destination of the blankets delivery (as in the example above) is not explicitly situated in George, the paying client’s goods are delivered first and a detour is taken on the way back to deliver the blankets (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). On the other hand, if it proves more efficient to make the detour first, the client’s permission is sought before the route is finalised because the client’s delivery might take place slightly later than originally planned (Olivier *et al.*, 2016).

Although *67 Blankets* deliveries sometimes “eat into” what would have been a profitable journey for *Stuttafords*, the collaboration is not observed as an impediment on *Stuttafords*’ everyday business (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). A combination of good planning by the operations team, sufficient resources, infrastructure and a large fleet are attributed to this success (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). *Stuttafords* acknowledge that there are occasions that it is more difficult to plan for the synchronisation of business and humanitarian organisation operations, but they almost always have availability and resources, so one rarely affects the other (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). Furthermore, the company values upholding their commitment to *67 Blankets* even when the logistical commitment of a *67 Blankets* job appears more complex than initially anticipated (Olivier *et al.*, 2016).

Conversations about *67 Blankets* and everyday business operations happen at the same table as they are considered “one in the same” (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). *67 Blankets* is even further integrated into the business in so much that *Stuttafords* staff knit blankets for the cause in addition to assisting with offloading blankets, carrying them, laying them out and sewing them

together at campaign events (Olivier *et al.*, 2016; Steyn *et al.*, 2016). Hence, *Stuttafords*' involvement is described as "very hands on" (Olivier *et al.*, 2016; Steyn *et al.*, 2016).

As *67 Blankets* is an ongoing operation, *Stuttafords* and the humanitarian organisation interact continuously throughout the year. *Stuttafords* communicates their involvement with *67 Blankets* to their clients by means of a brochure that goes into their bigger marketing brochure which accompanies *Stuttafords*' marketing consultants on visits to clients (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). Additionally, *Stuttafords* reports on their involvement on Facebook and their website, as well as in a newsletter that goes out to stakeholders once a quarter (Olivier *et al.*, 2016).

At the same time, *67 Blankets* uses much of their own media exposure (television, radio and social media) to acknowledge *Stuttafords*. Although, as the humanitarian organisation's managers highlight, *Stuttafords* have never asked for anything in return for their assistance (Steyn *et al.*, 2016). *Stuttafords* believe that the collaboration with *67 Blankets* can be regarded as two-way relationship, unlike many other charities that the company has assisted with in the past (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). Some of the other charities expect assistance without making offers in return to the company (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). *67 Blankets*, on the other hand, recognises that as a business, marketing and network-exposure is important to *Stuttafords* and thus offers opportunities in this regard without the actual request of *Stuttafords* (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). Moreover, *67 Blankets* notes that *Stuttafords* have never demonstrated intent to be the "headline act" of the collaboration (Steyn *et al.*, 2016). Conversely, the humanitarian organisation has experienced a number of other corporates that endeavour to be the headline act for relatively small a contribution (Steyn *et al.*, 2016).

In addition to ongoing media coverage, *67 Blankets* attempts to include *Stuttafords* in any events that might open opportunities for the business in terms of networking with potential clients (Olivier *et al.*, 2016; Steyn *et al.*, 2016). For instance, two of the *Stuttafords* managers most actively involved in *67 Blankets* were invited to an event held at one of the prisons; thereby providing the opportunity to engage with governmental contacts (Steyn *et al.*, 2016).

4.2.5 Benefit sharing

From the perspective of *Stuttafords*, there has been a combination of tangible and intangible benefits from the collaboration. A notable intangible benefit has been, firstly, team-building among *Stuttafords* staff (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). *Stuttafords* staff described how knitting together during lunch hours at the office during the week established an unforeseen camaraderie between staff across departments (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). Secondly, on the day of *67 Blankets*' campaign event, for example, team-building occurs whilst office staff work alongside operations crew to offload boxes of blankets (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). This has proved beneficial since office staff do not often have the opportunity to interact with the company's operational

crew, thus team-building moves across every department in the company and not only among in-office departments (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). Thirdly, the free media coverage that *Stuttafords* gains from *67 Blankets*' promotional efforts and television and radio appearances is a benefit that the company would not have otherwise realised (Olivier *et al.*, 2016).

Fourthly, *Stuttafords* was introduced to the Motsepe Foundation for which the company provided transport for a toy run (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). The *Stuttafords* trucks were co-branded and although it was for a charity, the company invoiced for the service; thus, benefiting financially and through brand exposure (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). Finally, *Stuttafords*' invitations to *67 Blankets*-associated events has provided a social platform on which to network with potential clients (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). When engaging in conversation with other corporates or private clients, *67 Blankets* provides a common link that might transform into tangible business (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). For example, should these third parties ever have to make a decision on which removal companies to procure for their business' needs, the common link of *67 Blankets* might be the foundation on which many choose *Stuttafords* as their preferred transporter (Olivier *et al.*, 2016).

Furthermore, Correctional Services is an account of *Stuttafords* and through being invited to *67 Blankets* events, the company has had the opportunity to meet personally with the heads of that department which has proved to cement their relationship (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). Carolyn Steyn also introduced *Stuttafords*' national marketing manager to the CEO of the upcoming luxury estate, Steyn City, thereby opening an opportunity for *Stuttafords* to be promoted as the preferred removals company for incoming residents (Steyn *et al.*, 2016). Essentially these social platforms introduce *Stuttafords* to a number of decision makers from various fields and industries all of which hold similar vision and values which *Stuttafords* prefer to be aligned with (Olivier *et al.*, 2016). *Stuttafords* notes, however, that it requires the company's effort and initiative to take advantage of networking opportunities to meet and exchange business with potential clients, but never to the detriment of the "true cause" (Olivier *et al.*, 2016).

67 Blankets has been spoken of as an initiative that is "binding [South Africa] together in a way that no government has been able to achieve" (67 Blankets, 2015). In prisons, the impact of the *67 Blankets* movement has led to the rallying call of "Knitting Broken Lives Together" (Steyn *et al.*, 2016). The Minister of Correctional Services, Michael Masutha subsequently titled his budget speech "Knitting Broken Lives and our Nation Together" (Steyn *et al.*, 2016). *67 Blankets* provides blankets for those who cannot afford their own during the winter, and also provides a sense of community and patriotism among those who knit together (Steyn *et al.*, 2016). Without the ongoing assistance of *Stuttafords*, *67 Blankets* would not have been able to host the campaign events at the Union Buildings and Drakenstein, nor would they have been able to sustain the operation on such a large scale (Steyn *et al.*, 2016).

4.3 CASE B: OPERATION SMILE AND DHL GLOBAL FORWARDING

4.3.1 *General background and summary of transport operations*

In 2006, *Operation Smile South Africa* (OSSA) joined the international medical humanitarian organisation of the same name (i.e. *Operation Smile*). The organisation sees its mandate as helping improve the health and lives of young adults and children by providing free surgery to those with cleft lips, cleft palates and other facial deformities. OSSA operate “missions” throughout Southern, Western and Central Africa. Mission sites vary, but for the last few years, a major mission site has been situated in Mbombela in Nelspruit at Rob Ferreira Hospital (Noble, 2016). By 2015, OSSA had conducted nearly 50 medical missions to more than 6 000 beneficiaries (Operation Smile South Africa, 2016a). Accordingly, the logistics around having missions in, not only areas around South Africa, but regionally in other countries like Madagascar and the Democratic Republic of the Congo, meant that a transport partner was necessary (Noble, 2016).

DHL Global Forwarding (DHL) transports to the mission site the equipment that OSSA requires for a mission, free of charge (Wheeler, 2016). OSSA has trunks delivered that consist of everything that one would typically need in an operating theatre for the repair of a cleft lip or palate (Noble, 2016). Each trunk could include, for example, surgical instruments, monitors and stethoscopes. Each OSSA mission is classified according to the number of operating tables planned for at the mission site; for instance, a “five-table mission” or “three-table mission”. A five-table mission would require a full set of cargo that translates into approximately fifteen trunks, including a dental trunk. The collaboration with DHL is unique to OSSA and its core focus is the transport of “whatever needs to be at the operation” (Wheeler, 2016). More specifically, DHL sends trucks to collect the equipment and consumables (such as drugs), clears the cargo at customs, and transports it to the mission site.

4.3.2 *Transport operations (engagement and resource deployment)*

DHL is a global freight forwarder that has the capabilities to transport any sort of freight, anywhere in the world, via air, ocean road, rail (DHL International, 2016b). Thus, transporting goods for OSSA does not differ much from transport for commercial clients. Commercially, DHL transports goods for a variety of sectors and so is equipped to transport anything, including cold chain items. As stated by Wheeler (2016), “We ship ships”. In terms of scale, transporting for OSSA is not out of range of DHL’s capabilities, neither is it something the company is unfamiliar with.

The only unique aspect of the transport service is from a customs perspective, where OSSA goods are sometimes cleared to re-enter a country (Wheeler, 2016). In other words, the goods are imported with the intent to return to their original source; therefore, special clearances are

required. That is to say that DHL handles all kinds of customs clearance on behalf of OSSA. The company provides shipment for even the marketing material required for OSSA's general exposure (Wheeler, 2016). The trunks that are delivered by DHL for OSSA missions are sent from either somewhere else in South Africa, regionally within Africa or sub-Saharan Africa. In the cases where the required equipment for the mission cannot be sourced from Africa, trunks are sent from the United States to the particular mission site (Noble, 2016). Hence, the necessity for customs clearance. In the experience of the logistics manager at OSSA, DHL's assistance is always available even if they are given short notice that they are needed (Noble, 2016).

Although the bulk of their donation is transportation, DHL also assists OSSA by providing volunteers to help on the mission site. The volunteers who assist offer their help on the ground when it might come to interacting with the patients; or when transport is required for smaller goods; or on occasion when patients need to be transported (in such cases, volunteers use their own means of transport) (Noble, 2016). DHL sends representatives for the "general disposal" of OSSA, normally for a duration of approximately four to ten days (Noble, 2016). DHL does not subtract from the staff members who go on these missions as it forms part of the objectives by which the staff are measured (Wheeler, 2016).

The DHL and OSSA collaboration is a supply chain operation that does not typically require warehouse storage with the purpose of storing trunks in anticipation of the distribution for a mission. Rather, the supply chain employs a just-in-time strategy (Wheeler, 2016). However, there have been circumstances where OSSA had equipment delivered from Democratic Republic of Congo in advance of a mission, for example, but they did not have space to store it until the mission (Noble, 2016). In such circumstances, DHL has provided free storage for OSSA although it is not the core focus of their collaboration (Noble, 2016).

4.3.2.1 Planning

The planning process begins when OSSA registers a mission and notifies DHL at the earliest point to query if they would be able to assist. OSSA then opens an account with DHL to which funds are allocated. DHL's implementation team draws up the account and typically requests the BBBEE certificate. The account operates as a credit account so that DHL knows what their final OSSA commitment is. Practically, whenever OSSA has shipment requirements, DHL is contacted and the goods are moved against OSSA's account at DHL. In order to guide DHL in setting up the allocation for their account, OSSA informs the team of their estimate for the year's requirements based on the previous year's operation (Noble, 2016; Wheeler, 2016).

When it comes to the clearing of the cargo and actual transportation, OSSA liaises with DHL to confirm that it is all possible. OSSA keeps DHL informed of any updates in the interim such

as packing lists and invoices for the purpose of DHL's scheduling of the appropriate vehicles in terms of the volume, quantity and weight of OSSA's shipment (Noble, 2016). OSSA also communicates information such as the size of the trunks, the number of trunks and boxes, their dimensions and measures, and so forth. Information is prioritised to be shared by OSSA at the earliest point to accommodate DHL's planning procedures (Noble, 2016).

A few months before a mission, OSSA organises with DHL that their marketing material is shipped and delivered to the right places; typically, that translates into about two or three shipments (Wheeler, 2016). Closer to the mission, OSSA's equipment is delivered and the collaboration begins to increase in activity. DHL's planning for an OSSA mission is mostly *ad hoc* depending on when and whether OSSA identifies the need for a mission; hence, there is no project plan in place on the side of DHL (Wheeler, 2016). The operational plan adapts according to each unique mission. The only "planned" element is DHL's actual commitment to help OSSA whenever help is needed.

4.3.2.2 Execution

There are a number of variables during the execution phase. For cross-border deliveries (that is, deliveries into South Africa for a mission) OSSA coordinates with the forwarding agents who are to hand over to DHL in South Africa for customs clearing and final delivery. The information that OSSA supplies to DHL for delivery to the mission site includes the date of delivery, the address of the mission site, and a contact person at the location. After this, DHL's operations managers take over the execution process. The documents required for customs clearing differ according to whether the cargo is delivered with the intention of returning to its home country or not. Should cargo need to be returned, there are specific customs documents that need to be approved. It would not be the "straight forward" kind of customs clearing where duties are paid on the other side (Wheeler, 2016).

Customs is the most technical aspect of delivery for DHL. Everything after customs only requires the standard documentation needed to inform any transport provider what freight (or cargo) they are receiving (goods description), where it is going (origin and final destination), when it ought to go (pickup and delivery), and to whom it ought to be delivered (consignor and consignee information) (Wheeler, 2016). DHL considers forwarding a "documents-driven" exercise, pointing out that each element of cargo requires different actions, dependant on mode of delivery and customs involvement, for which they have the appropriate specialists (Wheeler, 2016). Essentially, once the cargo arrives, it is drawn by DHL and taken by truck to the final mission site (Wheeler, 2016).

An example of this is when DHL receives cargo for OSSA from Malawi. Once the flight lands, DHL has 24 - 48 hours to draw the cargo. The forwarding agents in Malawi send a pre-alert to

DHL's air freight operations managers. Thereafter, the airfreight operations managers contact the road freight managers and inform them of the pending delivery. The road freight managers book the truck and manage the rest of the journey to the OSSA mission site (Wheeler, 2016). The trunks are packaged sufficiently on the inside so as to prevent breakage; thus any extra-special care need not be taken when handling the trunks (Noble, 2016).

The offices of *Operation Smile* that are located in different countries each manage their own missions and associated logistics. However, on the occasion that a foreign office requires additional assistance for a mission, help is sought from OSSA and *Operation Smile* USA. OSSA has, for example, organised deliveries to Madagascar for the local *Operation Smile* office. On these occasions, DHL delivers the freight to border customs from South Africa and DHL in-country manages the delivery from there (Noble, 2016).

During the execution phase, the programme coordinator of OSSA is in constant communication with DHL. Throughout planning and execution, OSSA's programme coordinator and logistics manager are kept on copy in all email communication. The more people on the ground of a mission that are kept on copy, is seen to make for the better (Noble, 2016). In the cases where a mission might end up finishing a day early, communication goes through to DHL to let the team know when the cargo will be ready for collection (Noble, 2016). Once everything has been collected and the mission is officially over, OSSA sends out certificates of thanks to all their partners and donors and to all team members whom assisted. Normally, the operation runs smoothly enough that a debrief with DHL is not considered necessary (Noble, 2016). In the opinion of Noble (2016), there has not been an occasion where DHL has underperformed. In fact, most of the time, she has had to request DHL's assistance in rectifying the mistakes of other stakeholders.

4.3.2.3 *Challenges and limitations*

The challenges that the collaboration face during operations are normally document-related as cargo is well tracked (Wheeler, 2016). For example, documents might be drawn up for a specific flight; however, the flight might be cancelled. The implication of a cancelled flight is that the flight number and arrival time changes and so all the shipment-related documents have to be corrected because the original documents were drawn up against the original flight details. Consequently, a voucher of correction has to be entered which can take time and create additional cost (Wheeler, 2016). There are few to no challenges related to the cargo itself. Indeed, OSSA has never experienced loss or breakage.

In terms of the limitations of the collaboration, the entities are not limited by a contract (Noble, 2016; Wheeler, 2016). As a collaborative partner, DHL does not seek to control the OSSA operations; thus, they choose not to limit the organisation and instead freely offer their

assistance for whenever OSSA see fit (Wheeler, 2016). OSSA is also free to make use of other transport providers, should the need occur. For instance, Volkswagen sponsors OSSA with vehicles for errands that have to be run on the mission site itself, such as picking up patients or posters (Noble, 2016). In 2015, City Bug Johannesburg assisted OSSA with the transport of their volunteers from OR Tambo International Airport to the mission site and back (Noble, 2016).

Safety plays a role in limiting the requests of OSSA in the sense that the organisation has made a commitment not to put any of their donors, sponsors (including DHL) or volunteers at risk at any given time (Noble, 2016). OSSA attempts to put measures in place beforehand to ensure their stakeholders' safety. However, if a certain situation presents itself as risky in any way, then OSSA does not ask DHL for their assistance (Noble, 2016).

Moreover, the collaboration does not impede or limit commercial business for DHL (Wheeler, 2016). OSSA shipments and freight forwarding are regarded by DHL the same as that of commercial business. In the same way, the key performance indices (KPIs) do not differ between commercial shipments and OSSA shipments which means that the shipments are not treated with any more or less care (Wheeler, 2016). DHL has approximately 3 000 clients; thus, the paying cliental that the company potentially loses out on due to transporting for a OSSA mission is marginal in comparison to their already-vast number of clients (Wheeler, 2016).

4.3.3 Financial structure and implications

All transport provided by DHL for OSSA is provided free of charge. Thus, the only transport related expenses on OSSA's account are *ad hoc*, such as, couriering temporary licenses for volunteers going on missions cross-borders. The bulk of the mission needs are, however, covered by DHL (Noble, 2016). Consequently, transport is no longer one of the greatest expenses of the operation.

Based on the previous year's commitments to OSSA, DHL's management team sets an allocation for the following year, taking gross profit into account amongst other factors. At the beginning of each year, a provision is set to sufficiently accommodate all of OSSA's shipments based on their forecast (Wheeler, 2016). If, towards the end of the year, it appears that the allocation will not be enough to accommodate OSSA until the end of the year; requests for further transport-sponsorship offerings are presented to and evaluated by DHL's CEO in order to increase the allocation (Wheeler, 2016).

An additional element taken into account by DHL are the tax rebates that the company could potentially receive from providing transport for OSSA, a Section 18A organisation. This, together with DHL's total CSI spend limitation, is a determining factor of OSSA's allocation. Thus, it is up to management's discretion as to what level they choose to engage with OSSA

(Wheeler, 2016). Yet, as mentioned previously, the allocation that is set is not necessarily final or inflexible. There is currently no fixed financing model with regards to running the collaboration. The company is, however, in the process of attempting to establish a fixed model in order to better forecast for each year (Wheeler, 2016).

In terms of the operating costs currently incurred for the operation, there are cost-codes allocated for each item involved in collection and delivery, such as handling, offloading costs and so forth (Wheeler, 2016). When cargo is sent from across borders, such as a shipment sent from Malawi, an origin invoice is sent by DHL in Malawi to the South African office. The Malawi office is paid by the South African office, as it is only DHL South Africa that is involved in providing the free transportation for OSSA (Wheeler, 2016).

4.3.4 Managerial complexity, integration and interaction intensity

When managing the collaboration, DHL does not use spare capacity or idle fleets, due to the nature of its business model. Where DHL Express has its own fleet, *DHL Global Forwarding* does not own a fleet but rather runs on a preferred-supplier basis (Wheeler, 2016) resulting in the company's flexibility in terms of capacity. There are no idle fleets because operations are structured based on demand and it is DHL's suppliers that meet those demand requirements (Wheeler, 2016).

The transport suppliers of DHL typically have corridor agreements with particular countries; hence, they are most suitable to get goods into country because they have a superior understanding of a specific lane (Wheeler, 2016). DHL contracts transporters who specialise in their field, especially if they specialise in a lane, because they are considered best in class on that lane. This means that the transporters are familiar with customs issues and border problems unlike any other transporters of that lane. By becoming the most effective transporters in their individual lanes, these transport suppliers allow DHL to become more effective as a business (Wheeler, 2016). Thus, DHL clients (including OSSA) also benefit from the advantage gained from these transporters.

The approach that DHL has toward the collaboration with OSSA is aligned with their core company mission. DHL aims to be "the logistics company for the world" and their strategy is to connect people and improve their lives (DHL International, 2016a; Wheeler, 2016). Thus, by connecting OSSA's resources from point A to point B, it enables OSSA to improve the lives of men, women and children through life changing surgeries (Wheeler, 2016). Further alignment is found in that DHL is a global organisation and OSSA operates across borders. Therefore, partnering with a large humanitarian organisation such as OSSA means that DHL has the existing capacities and capabilities to help move OSSA operations into other countries (Wheeler, 2016).

Another strategy that is growing in the management of the collaboration, is that of shared value (Wheeler, 2016). Shared value is achieved through the simultaneous provision of transport by DHL and creation of opportunities for networking by OSSA. OSSA held the #Operation45 Corporate Cup in Johannesburg early in 2016 in order to raise awareness that it could take as little as 45 minutes (the length of half a football match) to perform surgery to correct a cleft lip or cleft palate (Mackenzie, 2016). DHL entered a team into the Corporate Cup together with the likes of Woolworths, Outsurance and Cipla (Noble, 2016; Wheeler, 2016). DHL staff's enthusiasm to enter the tournament was so high that the company even had reserves (Wheeler, 2016). Although the corporates involved in the soccer tournament were non-banking financial, DHL saw opportunity for networking from a DHL Express point of view (Wheeler, 2016).

In addition to the football day, OSSA informs DHL when they have organised external forums such as conventions or meetings to which a number of OSSA stakeholders are invited (Noble, 2016; Wheeler, 2016). DHL takes into account which other corporates are invited to such events and then sends the employees most fitting to engage with them (Wheeler, 2016). DHL experiences these opportunities as a more effective method of marketing in comparison to mass-media marketing (for example), due to the opportunity to engage with potential clients face to face (Wheeler, 2016).

Conversely, in addition to transport, DHL has begun seeking a means to integrate existing CSI initiatives with OSSA for a greater social impact. For example, DHL has an existing relationship with SOS Children's Villages whereby DHL employees mentor youth from the SOS villages (SOS Children's Villages International, 2016; Wheeler, 2016). Accordingly, should there be children with cleft lips or palates from SOS Children's Villages, then there would be an opportunity to link them with OSSA (Wheeler, 2016). Wheeler (2016) also mentioned how DHL staff began an in-office initiative whereby employees knitted over 400 teddy bears in their free time, which were collected across the office. Initially the teddy bear initiative was one in isolation to OSSA, intended to benefit under privileged children elsewhere. However, employing the approach to both benefit and grow the relationships that are key to DHL, the teddy bear initiative was tied in with OSSA (Wheeler, 2016). The teddy bears accompanied the DHL representatives, who went to the OSSA mission in Nelspruit in October 2016, as gifts for the children patients. It is DHL's continued communication to staff about the collaboration with OSSA that encourages staff buy-in in the collaboration and which consequently inspired both the teddy bear initiative and staff involvement in the #Operation45 Corporate Cup (Wheeler, 2016).

4.3.5 **Benefit sharing**

From the perspective of DHL, some of the intangible benefits gained from the collaboration include the likes of staff productivity. For example, due to the motivation of staff to finish off their allocated tasks timeously in order to participate in OSSA missions and DHL's provisions to these staff, productivity is stirred (Wheeler, 2016). From a commercial perspective, the opportunities that OSSA presents for networking between corporates is a major benefit (Wheeler, 2016). With something in common (being OSSA), barriers to conversation with other corporates are experienced to be broken down, opening conversations related to potential future business (Wheeler, 2016). DHL noted the advantage in being more socially involved is the doors it opens. As such, in most businesses there are goods that require transportation from point A to point B, so DHL sees opportunity for connecting with potential clients, no matter what industry the corporate is found in (Wheeler, 2016). Another noted benefit for DHL is the impact a social event such as #Operation45 has on its staff – more staff members enjoy their jobs and thus, productivity increases (Wheeler, 2016).

In terms of external recognition due to the collaboration, DHL is still investigating how to achieve such recognition without the expense of authenticity. More specifically, they are considering how to “sell the story” of DHL and OSSA which people can connect to, instead of “chest-banging” about their involvement with OSSA. In this manner, people connect with the business itself (Wheeler, 2016) owing to their personal alignment with the values of the business. Benefit to the DHL brand is found, when passionate employees associated with OSSA missions participate in OSSA-organised events, thereby bearing a positive image of DHL because of their involvement (Wheeler, 2016). DHL identified word-of-mouth in this way as a notably strong marketing technique.

Seeing as *DHL Global Forwarding* holds mostly corporate clients, it is a challenge to incorporate their clients in their collaboration with OSSA due to their clients' involvement with their own, existing CSI initiatives (Wheeler, 2016). DHL has, however, identified the possibilities of inviting clients to participate in OSSA missions should the collaboration grow (Wheeler, 2016), which would be a major benefit to OSSA. When it comes to potentially planning for the growth of OSSA, DHL recognise that as a single organisation, the company does not have the power to single-handedly change OSSA due to the vast number of stakeholders involved in the OSSA operation (Wheeler, 2016). However, should OSSA decide to expand their operations and require DHL's assistance to do so, and if DHL is able to participate, then they will (Wheeler, 2016). Competitive advantage to DHL from the collaboration is mostly attained through the tax rebate that the company receives due to its CSI spend (Wheeler, 2016). From a financial perspective, the rebate does facilitate DHL's profitability.

The impact on OSSA's beneficiaries due to the involvement of DHL is the changed lives of the patients who arrive on the mission sites due to their new smiles. Essentially, DHL's involvement translates into at least 60 patients benefiting from cleft palate or cleft lip surgeries each mission (Noble, 2016). The evidence of changed lives and positively impacted communities is found in the testimonies of individual beneficiaries. Some children with cleft lips or palates are too shy to communicate because of their difficulty to articulate; this keeps them from building relationships and many times it keeps them from school (Operation Smile South Africa, 2016b; Robson, 2016). Some children are rejected by even their own families (Operation Smile South Africa, 2016b). Additionally, cleft lip and palate can both lead to malnutrition if the parents of the child do not know how to feed him or her (Robson, 2016). Thus, a repaired lip or palate enables the child to eat, pick up weight and get healthy again, which impacts the larger community as a whole (Robson, 2016). If DHL were not involved in clearing the cargo and transporting it to and from the mission site, OSSA missions would be more costly and thus more difficult to initiate and sustain (Noble, 2016).

4.4 CASE C: SANTA SHOEBOX PROJECT AND LASER LOGISTICS

4.4.1 *General background and summary of transport operations*

SSB began in Cape Town in 2006 and is registered as a PBO, an NPO, a level four BBBEE contributor, and has Section 18A status (Santa Shoebox, 2016a). SSB distributes shoeboxes that are decorated and filled with eight specified items for under-privileged children across South Africa and Namibia. Each box is put together by an individual donor for an individual child (whose name, age and gender is known) and must contain an outfit of clothing, a toothbrush and toothpaste, sweets, a toy, a facecloth, soap and educational supplies (Santa Shoebox, 2016a). From distributing 180 shoeboxes in 2006, to distributing a total of 551 979 boxes by 2015, the organisation's distribution network is ever-growing. Currently, shoeboxes are distributed to more than 1 000 beneficiary facilities, through more than 50 satellites around South Africa and Namibia (Santa Shoebox, 2016a). Owing to the significant reliance on transportation, the support of a transport provider was necessary.

Laser Logistics transports cartons of SSB shoeboxes to the organisation's beneficiary facilities across South Africa free of charge (Pretorius, 2016). The collaboration began a few years ago with a personal connection between the Chairman of *Laser Logistics* and founder of SSB. Owing to the personal nature of the boxes, they are packed in specific cartons for the specific children of a specific facility (Van Heerden, 2016; Zelezniak & Sander, 2016). Deliveries take place each year over the month of November, coincidentally around the same time as *Laser Logistics*' period of peak demand (Van Heerden, 2016; Zelezniak & Sander, 2016). SSB hosts over 50 shoebox drop-off facilities around the country, including in the main centres

(Johannesburg, Port Elizabeth, Durban and Cape Town). *Laser Logistics* collects cartons of shoeboxes from the main centres and delivers them to the allocated beneficiary facilities which are located within a 200-300km radius of each drop-off (Zelezniak & Sander, 2016).

Laser Logistics dedicates two 8-tonners for trips in the Western Cape that can hold approximately 200 cartons of shoeboxes each (Van Heerden, 2016). In addition to cartons, *Laser Logistics* occasionally transports SSB marketing material (called “starter kits”) to SSB drop off centres (Zelezniak & Sander, 2016). For a number of years (barring 2016), *Laser Logistics* has also provided temporary storage for the shoeboxes. Nevertheless, the core focus of the collaboration is the transport of shoeboxes to SSB’s allocated beneficiary facilities.

4.4.2 Transport operations (engagement and resource deployment)

Commercially, *Laser Logistics* provide warehousing and distribution services, specialising in the retail market with a segmental focus on appliances, electronics, fashion and lifestyle products (Laser Logistics, 2016; Pretorius, 2016). The company has branches in all the major centres of South Africa, as well as associated sister-companies. Two of *Laser Logistics*’ sister companies, Dawn Wing and Time Freight, also play a role in the SSB operation to a certain extent (Van Heerden, 2016; Zelezniak & Sander, 2016). Commercially, these companies specialise in road and air express-distribution (Laser Logistics, 2016).

In addition to transportation, *Laser Logistics* (Kuilsvier branch) send volunteers from the company to assist at the flagship SSB drop-off in Cape Town; however, the *Laser Logistics* branches in other centres do not officially send assistants to their local SSB drop-offs (Pretorius, 2016; Van Heerden, 2016). Typically, volunteers assist at the drop-off over a weekend, thus not conflicting with their working hours. Warehousing has also been made readily available by *Laser Logistics* for SSB storage during the month of operation. In Cape Town, SSB requires 500 - 600 square metres of warehousing usually from around the 1st of November each year (Zelezniak & Sander, 2016). The space required diminishes gradually as the deliveries take place (Zelezniak & Sander, 2016). However, in Port Elizabeth warehousing is not supplied and so the SSB operation runs slightly differently than the other main centres (Zelezniak & Sander, 2016).

The logistical requirements of *Laser Logistics*’ commercial operations are vastly different from that of SSB. Both the items delivered for SSB and the locations to which they are delivered are unlike those of *Laser Logistics*’ commercial deliveries (Van Heerden, 2016). Moreover, the market to which *Laser Logistics* commercially delivers products is different to that of SSB and is, therefore, the greatest explanation for the major differences between the two parties. *Laser Logistics* perform retail distribution to retail consignees such as Mass Mart, Pick ‘n Pay, and Lewis Stores on behalf of the company’s customers. Thus, *Laser Logistics* runs contractual

logistics and does not perform courier-type (business-to-consumer) deliveries. Though, to meet SSB's logistics need, courier-type deliveries must be performed because SSB requires deliveries directly to their beneficiaries in schools or in small towns and residential areas (Van Heerden, 2016). For this reason, *Laser Logistics* is unable to share SSB loads with commercial clients' truckloads (Van Heerden, 2016). Yet another consequence of the discrepancy is that *Laser Logistics* has not learned anything from SSB trips that could be applied to better their commercial business. Conversely, much is learned from deliveries to corporate clients that is applied to SSB's logistics operations (Van Heerden, 2016).

For smaller deliveries, one of *Laser Logistics*' sister companies assist SSB (Zelezniak & Sander, 2016). Smaller deliveries as such take place once or twice a year (maximum twice a year) in August or September to smaller towns (Zelezniak & Sander, 2016). Whilst Dawn Wing focus more on couriating airfreight and small parcels over the country, Time Freight is a road freight courier that has a large footprint in South Africa with 88 branches across the country (Van Heerden, 2016). Time Freight also has a number of smaller subcontractors itself (Van Heerden, 2016). Of the sister companies, it is Time Freight that most often assists *Laser Logistics* with SSB deliveries.

Time Freight typically delivers to two or three facilities, or a maximum of ten throughout the month of November (Van Heerden, 2016). These deliveries leave from the SSB drop-offs in Port Elizabeth and Durban. The deliveries accumulated in PE and Durban are significantly smaller than those in Johannesburg and Cape Town due to fewer contributions of shoeboxes by donors in those areas (Van Heerden, 2016). From the Cape Town drop-off (CTICC), *Laser Logistics* acquires deliveries for towns as far as Robertson, Prince Albert and Kimberly (Van Heerden, 2016). In such cases, a truck cannot be filled for a single facility; thus, the cartons are sent with Time Freight to deliver to all the SSB facilities in Kimberly and Prince Albert. Accordingly, Time Freight would collect the load from the *Laser Logistics* warehouse, send it on a truck to Bloemfontein and make the final delivery to the Kimberly facility (Van Heerden, 2016). *Laser Logistics* pays the cost of SSB deliveries made by their sister companies (Zelezniak & Sander, 2016).

Owing to *Laser Logistics* operating from only the main centres, SSB donors and volunteers from smaller centres in the country solve the logistical needs associated with their drop-off on their own terms (Zelezniak & Sander, 2016). As a result, often their own vehicles or the vehicles of their acquaintances are used to make deliveries. Small drop offs hold approximately 100 - 800 shoeboxes and an average car can carry up to 200 boxes (Zelezniak & Sander, 2016).

Besides smaller loads from the smaller centres, the other smaller deliveries made by *Laser Logistics* are occasionally, but infrequently, marketing materials of SSB that require delivery to SSB drop-offs (Zelezniak & Sander, 2016). Due to the high cost of transportation, SSB relies on the assistance of *Laser Logistics* for deliveries even as small as a tube of posters (Zelezniak & Sander, 2016). However, *Laser Logistics* does not always have the capacity (in terms of time or physical capacity) to transport such items (Zelezniak & Sander, 2016). But, if SSB paid the expense to deliver such items, transport could come to a cost that the humanitarian organisation can no longer afford. Moreover, it would take from funds that could have, for example, been used to purchase more items for children (Zelezniak & Sander, 2016).

4.4.2.1 *Planning process*

The planning process begins afresh each year (Zelezniak & Sander, 2016). This also means that everything is renegotiated every year; including the timeline of the operation, budgets, volunteers, sponsorship contracts and beneficiaries (Zelezniak & Sander, 2016). Most of the planning for a new year mirrors the planning of the previous year whilst incorporating fresh learnings (Zelezniak & Sander, 2016). Each year, planning begins in the same way; with meetings between SSB and *Laser Logistics* where SSB informs the *Laser Logistics* team of the number of cartons anticipated for each drop-off point as well as the number of facilities to which those cartons have to be delivered for that year (Van Heerden, 2016; Zelezniak & Sander, 2016). In greater detail, SSB is required firstly, to explain how many cartons are anticipated per facility; secondly, to pinpoint the precise location of the facilities, and thirdly, to provide the contact details of one or two staff at each facility (Zelezniak & Sander, 2016). Each carton is approximately 50cm x 60cm x 50cm (although carton sizes may vary) and approximately 8-10 shoe boxes fit in a carton (Zelezniak & Sander, 2016). About 40 cubic metres can fit into a vehicle, which translates to about 200 cartons per vehicle (Van Heerden, 2016). The preferred time of delivery is always set as “as soon as possible”, but all deliveries should be completed prior to educational facilities’ closing for the summer holiday (Zelezniak & Sander, 2016).

Laser Logistics uses SSB’s information to collaboratively plan a delivery schedule for the period of distribution. The delivery schedule specifies what deliveries will be made to which areas on a particular day(s) and, depending on how many cartons are allocated per facility, cartons may be delivered to facilities in more than one greater area in a day (Van Heerden, 2016). The number of deliveries per day is decided based on the size and infrastructure of an area – *Laser Logistics* attempts to make as many deliveries in a particular area as possible (Van Heerden, 2016). *Laser Logistics* also schedules trips with enough leeway for challenges related to communication with facilities (Van Heerden, 2016).

SSB has a member on each of their Western Cape, Gauteng and Kwa-Zulu Natal teams who is equipped to provide additional assistance to *Laser Logistics*. These members mostly assist with planning delivery routes based on both his/her knowledge of the precise location of facilities and his/her logistics background (Van Heerden, 2016; Zelezniak & Sander, 2016). In Port Elizabeth, where SSB does not have a team member who can assist in the planning of the actual delivery schedule, the *Laser Logistics* team leads the planning of the schedule themselves (Van Heerden, 2016).

Another consideration during planning is the consultation of past drivers. Drivers who assisted with SSB deliveries in the past are consulted by *Laser Logistics* before finalising delivery schedules in order to learn in which areas they experienced problems (Van Heerden, 2016). For example, some drivers recall that certain facilities might have been assumed to be a school but were actually an office that opens at only 09:00; therefore, they suggest that that particular facility should not be the first stop for a driver, but rather a school that is open from 07:00 (Van Heerden, 2016). This was found to be a useful planning tactic, as many of the same SSB facilities are reached year after year (Van Heerden, 2016).

Based on the proposed delivery schedules, SSB plans the physical handing out of the gifts for the celebrations (or parties) of each facility. SSB prefers to be present when the gifts are handed out to the children at each facility's party to ensure that the intended gifts do indeed reach the intended beneficiary children (Zelezniak & Sander, 2016). Constant communication between *Laser Logistics* and SSB allows the flexibility to not only arrange parties according to *Laser Logistics'* proposed delivery schedule, but also to arrange deliveries according to when the parties are scheduled (Van Heerden, 2016). There have, however, been occasions where a party was rescheduled to meet *Laser Logistics'* preferred delivery schedule (Van Heerden, 2016).

A provision to consider during the planning process is that once the boxes are delivered by *Laser Logistics* (in the main centres) the boxes should only be left at the facility for about three days before a SSB person should arrive to facilitate the party (Zelezniak & Sander, 2016). The reason for this is that it is a security risk for the facility to hold shoeboxes filled with gifts for prolonged periods of time (Zelezniak & Sander, 2016). This further emphasises the importance of the synchronisation of calendars and schedules during planning.

4.4.2.2 *Execution process*

In 2016, SSB had 53 defined shoebox drop-offs all over the country for their donors (Santa Shoebox, 2016b; Zelezniak & Sander, 2016). Activity at each drop-off centre runs over two to three days, sometimes over only one day – depending on the magnitude of donors in the area (Zelezniak & Sander, 2016). At each drop-off there are volunteers who handle all processes

from the receipt of a shoebox, to checking, packing, moving and scanning shoeboxes (Santa Shoebox, 2016b). The boxes get sorted into cartons according to their various facilities at the drop-off (Van Heerden, 2016). Once all the internal processes at the drop-off are complete, *Laser Logistics* trucks arrive and load all of the cartons to take them from the drop-off to the designated warehouse. The collection of boxes from the drop-off can take up to two days (Van Heerden, 2016). There is no particular process to loading the cartons onto the trucks at the drop-off as the cartons are sorted further at the *Laser Logistics* warehouse (Zelezniak & Sander, 2016).

Once all the cartons arrive at the warehouse, they are sorted by *Laser Logistics* staff. The cartons are unloaded and sorted per facility, per date; essentially they are offloaded in accordance to SSB's codes (Van Heerden, 2016). There might be up to 30 cartons for one facility and one facility might also have a number of different codes, particularly if the facility is a school with a number of different classes (Van Heerden, 2016). For instance, the Grade 5 and Grade 2 classes would each have a unique code and unique cartons.

A waybill is captured detailing the facility name and location, the date of delivery, the total number of cartons for that facility, and the number of the individual carton in relation to the total number of cartons (Van Heerden, 2016). A bar-code label gets stuck to each carton as it comes in from the drop-off; this process might take place over two or three days (Van Heerden, 2016). In the first year of collaboration, *Laser Logistics* made deliveries based on SSB's codes; however, it proved to be inefficient and ineffective (Van Heerden, 2016). Cartons are now labelled with a *Laser Logistics*-designed label because it is then easier for *Laser Logistics* staff to sort, load and offload cartons without any confusion, as the waybills are congruent with those used for commercial loads (Van Heerden, 2016). After the cartons have been labelled, they are split into their facility groups. As the cartons are loaded for delivery, each is scanned with a hand scanner that gives the driver his trip sheet (Van Heerden, 2016). A waybill that facilities are required to sign upon delivery is also produced before the driver leaves, also referred to as a Proof of Delivery (POD). Thus, the outbound operations behind the SSB collaboration are run completely the same as a corporate client (Van Heerden, 2016).

Finally, *Laser Logistics* makes the deliveries according to the delivery schedule that was determined and agreed upon with SSB (Zelezniak & Sander, 2016). Once the delivery schedule is in place, there is not much flexibility to move it around because many of the facilities plan their parties according to *Laser Logistics*' proposed timetable (Van Heerden, 2016). Should *Laser Logistics* find that they have space in a truck on a particular day for a facility that was not originally scheduled for delivery on that day, they cannot necessarily add in that facility's load (Van Heerden, 2016). This is because of the risk of theft that boxes hold

if they are left at the facility for longer than three days before the facility's party (Van Heerden, 2016).

During the delivery process, there is constant communication among SSB teams and among *Laser Logistics* teams, between SSB and *Laser Logistics*, and between *Laser Logistics* and the contact persons of the facilities (Van Heerden, 2016; Zelezniak & Sander, 2016). *Laser Logistics* checks continuously that the contact person of each facility is in fact ready to receive the cartons at the agreed upon time (Van Heerden, 2016). A time constraint comes in when the delivery is made to a school because schools generally close at 14:00. Consequently, if the delivery is made in the late afternoon or evening, there may not be a contact person left at the school to receive the delivery (Van Heerden, 2016). If a delivery is on an outlying route, the drivers come in earlier so as to reach the delivery points as soon as possible, or at least before the facility closes (Van Heerden, 2016).

The drivers and assistants on each of the two dedicated *Laser Logistics* trucks (for SSB deliveries) are committed to only SSB for that month (Van Heerden, 2016). In other words, they do not perform commercial deliveries in-between. *Laser Logistics* trucks could return from a SSB delivery at 18:00, sometimes 19:00 or 20:00, after which the vehicles are immediately loaded by a different team for the following day (Van Heerden, 2016). This is so that when the drivers come to work the next morning, they will be able to get in their vehicle and immediately begin the day's schedule (Van Heerden, 2016). These processes are not necessarily followed for commercial operations.

As of recent years, deliveries run over a four-day week (Zelezniak & Sander, 2016). This was after learning about the inefficiencies associated with a five-day delivery week. For example, on day one, one of the trucks might have been scheduled to make fifteen deliveries but was only able to make twelve (due to unforeseen obstacles). The implications of this is that on day two the truck might have been scheduled to make another fifteen deliveries, but there would be an additional three deliveries that need to be included. This caused a major delivery bottleneck. Sometimes, deliveries that could not be made on a particular day were made only a week later; which could have been after the time that a facility's party was scheduled (Zelezniak & Sander, 2016). Therefore, SSB and *Laser Logistics* instituted a four-day delivery week where Friday is "catch-up day" thereby ensuring that that week's schedule is cleared (Van Heerden, 2016; Zelezniak & Sander, 2016).

4.4.2.3 *Challenges and limitations*

A major challenge faced during the operation was noted as crime and safety (Pretorius, 2016; Van Heerden, 2016; Zelezniak & Sander, 2016). SSB has observed that often the areas where there are children of greatest need, are the areas to which SSB is not prepared to send

volunteers, nor which *Laser Logistics* is prepared to send trucks (Zelezniak & Sander, 2016). This might be due to potential conflict in those areas, such as gang violence or protests (Zelezniak & Sander, 2016). If a driver arrives at a facility or drives into a certain area and notices that it would not be safe for neither him nor his crew, then the delivery would be aborted (Van Heerden, 2016). In such cases, *Laser Logistics* would attempt the delivery on a day where safety is assured (Van Heerden, 2016). A related challenge occurs in that when *Laser Logistics* visits a particular area delivering SSB gifts to facilities or schools, the community learns that whenever a *Laser Logistics* arrives it is most likely bearing gifts. Thus, a risk is involved for not only the *Laser Logistics* team, but also the facility receiving gifts as they might become a target for theft (Van Heerden, 2016; Zelezniak & Sander, 2016).

Another challenge is related to the beneficiary communication capabilities. Due to a number of the beneficiaries being located in hard-to-reach and poor areas, lines of communication are limited. For instance, SSB requires beneficiary information to be uploaded onto a template by the facilities; however, not all of the facilities have access to internet or a computer (Zelezniak & Sander, 2016). Also, not all of the facilities' staff have cell phones and some do not always have airtime (Zelezniak & Sander, 2016). These factors, in addition to poor phone signal make contacting the facilities for the purpose of delivery particularly difficult (Van Heerden, 2016; Zelezniak & Sander, 2016). Therefore, often times SSB supplies *Laser Logistics* with more than one contact person (Zelezniak & Sander, 2016).

Again, if the truck arrives after school has closed (if the facility is a school), there is little chance of finding someone to hand over SSB cartons to (Van Heerden, 2016). Thus, *Laser Logistics* maintains close communication with facility managers by phoning them ahead of time and constantly communicating *Laser Logistics* trucks' movements (Van Heerden, 2016). In the cases when drivers cannot get hold of the facility, *Laser Logistics* remains in close communication with SSB team members who are well-acquainted with the precise locations of the facilities and whom may know more than the one or two contacts provided for that facility (Van Heerden, 2016).

There are two reasons why facilities' locations might be difficult to reach. Firstly, their precise location is difficult to pin point. Some of the facilities might be located outside of towns or on farms which do not have an exact address (Van Heerden, 2016). SSB attempted once to provide *Laser Logistics* and their own volunteers with GPS co-ordinates; however, poor reception prevented the retrieval of the co-ordinates (Zelezniak & Sander, 2016). At the same time, many of the facilities do not have a website that could provide more detail as to their location (Van Heerden, 2016).

Secondly, facilities are not always located on main routes, meaning that many times they are off-road. If, for example, *Laser Logistics* have to deliver five cartons and ought to drive on a 20km dirt road to get to the facility, only to come out and drive a different direction for another 20km to a different school, the team would choose rather to meet a manager of the facility half way in order to offload (Van Heerden, 2016). On occasion it is SSB team members who meet *Laser Logistics* half way in order to take the cartons to the final destination (Zelezniak & Sander, 2016). Although *Laser Logistics* trucks have to be large enough to make a greater number of deliveries, often they cannot drive into the densely populated informal settlements due to low-hanging overhead cables. An additional challenge is that sometimes it is not necessarily a dirt road that leads to a facility, but rather a plain of sand on which 8-tonners are not equipped to travel (Zelezniak & Sander, 2016). There was once a situation, the only situation of its kind, when the shoeboxes were delivered to the incorrect facility (Zelezniak & Sander, 2016). The confusion came in because the incorrect facility had the same name as the original facility, it was in the same area but with only a slightly different road name. Therefore, knowing precise locations is imperative.

In terms of the limitations of the collaboration, the entities are governed by a verbal agreement instituted at the incorporation of the relationship, which stipulates that *Laser Logistics* has national sponsorship acknowledgement (Zelezniak & Sander, 2016). This means that *Laser Logistics* has exclusivity as SSB's transporter. Part of the agreement has set the maximum number of boxes for delivery as 100 000 (Pretorius, 2016). Hence, SSB is unable to grow their beneficiary numbers because, firstly, it is too costly for *Laser Logistics* to expand beyond the current agreement; and secondly, as *Laser Logistics* performs the logistics function of SSB, increased numbers would make the operation that much more complicated (logistically) for both parties (Pretorius, 2016; Zelezniak & Sander, 2016). An alternative model might be one where *Laser Logistics* supports SSB in a regional capacity, for example *Laser Logistics* would have exclusivity to only Cape Town trips whilst a different transport provider runs Johannesburg trips (Zelezniak & Sander, 2016). In such a case, the cost to *Laser Logistics* as a SSB sponsor would decrease. SSB would therefore acquire transport from more than one service provider where each provider best situated in terms of the facilities to which deliveries must be made.

Currently, SSB donors do not receive a confirmation message immediately as their intended shoebox has reached their intended child, which is a service that SSB considers would "close the circle" (Zelezniak & Sander, 2016). SSB notes that this would be a "massive value-add to the credibility of the organisation" (Zelezniak & Sander, 2016). As it stands, *Laser Logistics* tracks cartons and not individual shoeboxes. However, SSB has knowledge of which donors' shoeboxes go to which facility, so as the facility receives its carton of shoeboxes, all the donors

linked to that facility could get a general notification that their box has been delivered (Zelezniak & Sander, 2016). Thus, it would be possible for such a system to eventually be implemented.

The collaboration does cause an impediment to *Laser Logistics*' business (Pretorius, 2016; Van Heerden, 2016). This is due to the exclusion of the two 8-tonners from the fleet that would normally do deliveries to commercial clients. Also, six staff members (driver and two assistants per truck) are assigned to the SSB operation instead of commercial operations (Van Heerden, 2016). In Johannesburg, *Laser Logistics* typically dedicates nine members of staff and two 8-ton trucks to SSB deliveries. The staff ascribed to SSB operations comprise of one supervisor, two general workers, two drivers and four assistants (Pretorius, 2016). In order to keep up with the business' peak time, *Laser Logistics* hires additional vehicles for the month in order to make commercial deliveries and meet their clients' demand (Van Heerden, 2016). In 2016, influx of business meant that *Laser Logistics* were unable to provide SSB with warehouse space because all of their warehousing facilities were full. Consequently, SSB canvassed social media and reached out to their networks for warehouse sponsorship. Growthpoint Properties sponsored a warehouse in Jet Park in Gauteng and SunPower provided their warehouse in Airport Industria in Cape Town for SSB's use.

4.4.3 Financial structure and implications

All transport provided by *Laser Logistics* for SSB is provided free of charge (Pretorius, 2016). Subsequently, it is salaries and general operating expenses (which amount to around R130 000 per annum) that now constitute SSB's highest expenses (Zelezniak & Sander, 2016). The cost of transportation is allocated to *Laser Logistics*' CSI spend for BBBEE scorecard purposes (Pretorius, 2016). The average cost of national transport provision to SSB is set between R700 000 – R800 000 (Van Heerden, 2016). This includes the costs of renting trucks, additional staff for the loading of SSB-allocated vehicles, salaries, fuel and a provision for overtime for the drivers that come in early (Pretorius, 2016; Van Heerden, 2016). There is a "bit of flexibility" to the allocation to SSB, but *Laser Logistics* are not always able to meet the needs of SSB due to their limited capacity; for example, in 2016 when the company was unable to provide warehouse space (Van Heerden, 2016). Nevertheless, *Laser Logistics* receives full CSI points in the socio-economic development sub-section of the BBBEE scorecard for their contribution to SSB among other smaller CSI projects (Pretorius, 2016).

4.4.4 Managerial complexity, integration and interaction intensity

When managing the collaboration, it is SSB's unique logistics requirements that hinder its potential for integration with *Laser Logistics*' day-to-day deliveries. Due to the logistics requirements of SSB, *Laser Logistics* runs a dedicated service for the organisation. SSB's delivery slots and the routes to their beneficiaries conflict with *Laser Logistics*' commercial

delivery slots and routes. Therefore, *Laser Logistics* would need a substantial amount spare capacity to successfully integrate the operation with commercial deliveries (Pretorius, 2016). Currently, *Laser Logistics* considers the SSB collaboration separate from commercial operations. In the centres where SSB's operations are smaller, such as in PE and Durban, *Laser Logistics* attempts to slot SSB deliveries in with normal routes as far as possible (Pretorius, 2016).

Despite having a good relationship, SSB and *Laser Logistics* do not interact during the year (Zelezniak & Sander, 2016). SSB describes the relationship as “strictly operational” (Zelezniak & Sander, 2016) and *Laser Logistics* describes it as “just a CSI” (Van Heerden, 2016). The chairman of *Laser Logistics* does sit on the SSB Board of Trustees; however, his input does not necessarily revolve around *Laser Logistics*' involvement in the SSB operation (Zelezniak & Sander, 2016). Thus, their main interactions during the year are purposed to set up meetings leading up to the month of SSB distribution (Pretorius, 2016). Once all the boxes have been distributed, there is no time for even a debrief as the end of the year is *Laser Logistics*' busiest time of year (Zelezniak & Sander, 2016). It is only in the new year, whilst planning for the new season of SSB, that the respective teams have a debrief and discuss what could be done better for the upcoming SSB distributions (Zelezniak & Sander, 2016).

Laser Logistics' mission is to continually evolve and grow the organisation and services on offer in order to provide their customers with multiple specialised logistics services. *Laser Logistics* aim to do this in a manner which develops strong partnerships, ensures technological excellence, allows for innovative solutions and provides for fulfilment visibility and embraces sustainable development (Laser Group, 2016). With this said, the company's engagement with SSB does not fit into the company's mission or vision but rather supports the company's CSI programmes, as highlighted by Pretorius (2016).

4.4.5 Benefit sharing

Laser Logistics trucks display a “Proudly Delivering Santa Shoeboxes” sticker during delivery season and the transporter, along with its sister companies, are mentioned as sponsors in posts on SSB's social media platforms. In addition, *Laser Logistics* is given space at the CTICC shoebox drop-off to promote their brand (Zelezniak & Sander, 2016). Nonetheless, from the perspective of *Laser Logistics*, there has been little benefit to the company from the collaboration with SSB in terms of competitive advantage, stakeholder benefit or external recognition (Pretorius, 2016). *Laser Logistics* is not benefitting as much as they could in terms of public relations or marketing (Van Heerden, 2016; Zelezniak & Sander, 2016) and many of *Laser Logistics*' stakeholders are unaware of their collaboration with SSB (Van Heerden,

2016). The only noted benefit is the CSI points that the company receives for their allocation to SSB (Pretorius, 2016; Van Heerden, 2016).

In terms of social impact, Zelezniak and Sander (2016) speak of how *Laser Logistics* saw SSB through the initial growth of the project and also enabled the growth of the organisation. Before the involvement of *Laser Logistics*, SSB volunteers distributed shoeboxes in the boots of their cars (Zelezniak & Sander, 2016). Thus, *Laser Logistics* enabled SSB to spread as far as they are currently; although, future growth has been limited by the 100 000 box ceiling (Pretorius, 2016; Zelezniak & Sander, 2016).

Ultimately, there is an impact in the life of each child who receives a shoebox. In 2016, for instance, SSB's theme was "more than just a shoebox". Each shoebox has the eight required items in it and each one of the items was identified for its real impact on the life of an underprivileged child (Zelezniak & Sander, 2016). The reason why SSB chose components such as a toothbrush and toothpaste, for example, is because of what they can inspire (Zelezniak & Sander, 2016). These items enable dental health which results in a confident smile and an inherent self confidence that goes on to achieving potential (Zelezniak & Sander, 2016). The idea behind SSB is that children with little access to material things are shown that, despite their family limitations or financial limitations, they are able to achieve what they have set their mind to (Zelezniak & Sander, 2016).

4.5 CASE D: HIPPO ROLLER AND 3WINGS LOGISTICS

4.5.1 *General background and summary of transport operations*

The Hippo Water Roller Project (henceforth, "*Hippo Roller*") is a social enterprise that was first established in 1994 in response to the water-access challenge experienced by women and children in rural areas across Africa (Hippo Roller, 2016a). The Hippo Roller is a 90 litre, strong and durable barrel-shaped container equipped with a steel handle with which it can be pushed or pulled (Hippo Roller, 2016b). Traditionally, women and children walk many kilometres every day to collect twenty litres of water which they carry in a bucket on their heads (Hippo Roller, 2016b). One Hippo Roller is equivalent to five of these buckets; translating into fewer trips and less physical strain (Hippo Roller, 2016b). The design of the Hippo Roller allows water to be placed inside the "wheel" so that the weight is borne on the ground and distributed over a wide rolling surface (Hippo Roller, 2016b). *Hippo Roller* ships rollers to recipients in Africa, the Americas, Asia, Oceania and Europe (Hippo Roller, 2016c). In South Africa, *Hippo Roller* procures in-country transport for distribution to the final beneficiaries. Transport constitutes a major function of the organisation, both nationally and internationally.

Hippo Roller outsources transport to a number of transport providers, but *3Wings Logistics* (henceforth, "*3Wings*") is one of *Hippo Roller's* most frequently procured transport suppliers.

The transporter does not, however, provide its services free of charge. *Hippo Roller* is not a beneficiary of *3Wings*' corporate giving initiatives; rather, *Hippo Roller* is regarded as a client of *3Wings* (de Jager & de Jager, 2016; Gibbs & Rigby, 2016). Nevertheless, *3Wings* typically transport the rollers ordered by *Hippo Roller*'s donors to the donors' desired beneficiaries in South Africa. The company provides affordable rates and a reliable service which has been a major reason for *Hippo Roller*'s continued patronage (Gibbs & Rigby, 2016). *Hippo Roller* has built relationships with a number of transport providers; however, *3Wings* has established itself as the organisation's preferred transport supplier (Gibbs & Rigby, 2016).

4.5.2 Transport operations (engagement and resource deployment)

3Wings is a courier and logistics service provider that delivers door-to-door and business-to-business along fixed routes in South Africa and Namibia (*3Wings Logistics*, 2016a). Commercially, *3Wings* transports pallet-driven goods ranging from engine parts to stationery, home appliances to telecommunication goods, oils and anti-freezers (de Jager & de Jager, 2016). Essentially, *3Wings* can transport anything; therefore, transporting rollers is not out of the company's range of capability (de Jager & de Jager, 2016). The relationship between *Hippo Roller* and *3Wings* does not function any differently than *3Wings*' relationships with their other clients (de Jager & de Jager, 2016). The major difference is that *3Wings*' head office keeps in closer communication with their drivers during *Hippo Roller* deliveries than during commercial operations so as to ensure that they are following the correct route. This is because the routes to *Hippo Roller*'s beneficiaries differ from the transporter's typical commercial routes and thus, those with which the drivers are familiar (de Jager & de Jager, 2016).

Hippo Roller receives orders for rollers from their "clients" (henceforth, "donors") which include government, corporates' CSI initiatives, humanitarian organisations and churches that choose particular communities to which they would like to donate rollers (Gibbs & Rigby, 2016). For example, the World Food Programme purchased approximately three large shipping containers of rollers for delivery to Somalia (Gibbs & Rigby, 2016). Upon ordering rollers, donors pay an additional transport fee which *Hippo Roller* uses to cover the costs of transportation. Subsequently, *Hippo Roller* arranges the transportation of the rollers for the donors; however, for international shipments, *Hippo Roller* encourages the donors to arrange with the shippers themselves.

When exporting goods, value-added tax (VAT) is not allowed to be charged by the exporter. This differs according to whether the shipment is a direct or indirect export. In other words, there is a difference when *Hippo Roller* arranges the cross-border transport to the donor (indirect) and when the donor arranges the transport for himself/herself (direct). When *Hippo Roller* arranges the transport, then the organisation has to charge VAT to the donor as the

donor collects the exported rollers from *Hippo Roller*. The donor then ought to claim VAT back at the border. Therefore, in order to avoid these unnecessary VAT complications, *Hippo Roller* encourages the donor to arrange their own cross-border shipments (Gibbs & Rigby, 2016).

Locally, smaller quantities (one to 30 rollers) are sent by *Hippo Roller* via the South African Post Office (SAPO) to the donor for distribution (Gibbs & Rigby, 2016). It is a counter-to-counter service and has worked successfully as no roller has ever been lost (Gibbs & Rigby, 2016). When possible, Grant Gibbs (executive director of *Hippo Roller*) makes the deliveries himself by hooking a trailer to his one-ton light delivery vehicle on which he can transport 50 rollers (Gibbs & Rigby, 2016). In the case of quantities greater than 50, the organisation involves a third-party trucking company such as *3Wings*. Internationally, Expedited Mail Service (EMS), a division of SAPO, is the export party that transports rollers as airfreight (Gibbs & Rigby, 2016). Although the service is considered quite fast, EMS does not deliver to the client's door but either to the nearest post office or to customs where the donor collects the shipment and pays the relevant duties (Gibbs & Rigby, 2016). Therefore, some additional transport costs are accrued to the importing donor, especially if there are large volumes of rollers that are due to be collected (Gibbs & Rigby, 2016).

When there is a large handover of rollers to communities, a function is organised around it which Grant Gibbs prefers to attend, particularly in the case of corporate donors. This is because of the risk involved in sending the trucks into the community without some sort of leadership regarding the actual handing out of the rollers (Gibbs & Rigby, 2016). Therefore, the trucks travel with Grant Gibbs into communities so that he can take on the leadership of the actual handover. The handover process begins with the identification of a beneficiary community. Thereafter, the idea is introduced to the community leaders in order to receive their blessing to enter the community, whilst respecting the customs of that particular community (for example, giving the chief a gift upon meeting) (Gibbs & Rigby, 2016). The community leaders decide who will receive rollers; most times it is the elderly, or child-headed households, or those who live furthest from the water point who are first preference (Gibbs & Rigby, 2016). Finally, the day of the handover is booked, the donor arrives and *Hippo Roller* arrives with the *3Wings* trucks to facilitate the handover.

Typically, an 8-tonner (whether it has curtain sides or solid walls does not matter) can deliver 200-240 rollers at a time (de Jager & de Jager, 2016; Gibbs & Rigby, 2016). The truck that is often deployed is a curtain-liner and it can fit 100-200 rollers on average (de Jager & de Jager, 2016). The 8-tonner allows stacking up to 2,2 metres high, from the front to the back of the bed. If the bed is 2,4 metres wide, then *3Wings* can stack about six rollers up to 2,2 metres high (de Jager & de Jager, 2016). The 8-tonners are preferred because they both accommodate larger capacities, and generally they can access most of the rural areas to which

the rollers are usually transported (de Jager & de Jager, 2016; Gibbs & Rigby, 2016). There are occasions where the larger loads (500 or more rollers) are transported to a point and then alternative vehicles that are able to access difficult roads take the rollers to the final destination (Gibbs & Rigby, 2016). The smaller loads of 10-50 rollers are generally transported on a trailer with side panels for stacking. A sail is secured over the trailer with ropes to protect the rollers during transport (de Jager & de Jager, 2016). *3Wings* does not share roller loads with clients' loads. This is a general principle instituted throughout the business.

The number of *Hippo Roller* operations in which *3Wings* is involved varies during the year (de Jager & de Jager, 2016). On some occasions, *3Wings* might perform four to five trips a month; yet, there are also months where there are no trips scheduled. For large trips, *Hippo Roller* informs *3Wings* a few months in advance. Furthermore, there are other times that *3Wings* might make more than one delivery to a particular area. For example, 200 rollers were once delivered to a particular community and were followed by an additional 200 rollers the following week. Thus, trips vary completely.

In terms of staff assistance, *3Wings* drivers are expected only to drive and not necessarily to assist the client in any other capacity (de Jager & de Jager, 2016). However, *3Wings* and their staff value time efficiency; therefore, where drivers are able to help (and the client welcomes their help) then the drivers do assist with offloading to complete the job faster. When loading the client's goods upon collection, the driver often assists with loading the truck as well because he is knowledgeable on how best to stack the goods so as to prevent damage. This is significant as there was one instance that *Hippo Roller* encountered with a different transport provider where the truck was packed incorrectly and without the consideration of multiple deliveries. The wrong load had been placed at the front of the truck, so that when the team attempted to offload the correct batch, rollers spilled out of the truck onto the street (Gibbs & Rigby, 2016).

4.5.2.1 *Planning*

The planning process begins once *Hippo Roller* receives the funds from the donor for their roller order. Once *Hippo Roller* has the donor's payment, they approach the manufacturers to produce a certain quantity, in a particular colour, with branding according to the donor's preference. The organisation and donor agree, together with the beneficiary community, on a date for the official handover of the rollers. This is settled at least a month in advance of the function.

With the details of the order in place, *Hippo Roller* determines what kind of truck they would need and thus whether they could do the delivery themselves or if they need to outsource transportation. In the case that outsourced transport is required, *3Wings* is contacted to book

the necessary vehicle. *Hippo Roller* is unable to predict the precise number or frequency of roller deliveries during the year or during any given month. There are no scheduled delivery days nor times that *Hippo Roller* can provide as projections for shipping agents and other transport providers such as *3Wings*; instead, the organisation handles each delivery as each donor's order comes in.

Hippo Roller then provides *3Wings* with the size of the load, including the dimensions and weight of the rollers. With this information, *3Wings* determines whether the appropriate truck is available during the time that *Hippo Roller* requires it. *3Wings* need at least two or three days advanced notice of a booking, for greater guarantee of truck availability. The trucks are normally booked for one or two days at a time (de Jager & de Jager, 2016). Additionally, *Hippo Roller* provides details of the pickup and drop-off points as well as the contact information for at least two persons at each point. Once all is in order, *3Wings* sends *Hippo Roller* a quote for the service.

4.5.2.2 Execution

The day before the scheduled collection of the rollers, *3Wings* confirms the time of collection with the relevant contact person holding the rollers set for delivery. Typically, *3Wings* loads the truck the day before the trip. The drivers are trained to ensure that the number of units loaded onto the truck correspond with the number of units that *Hippo Roller* arranged for that particular delivery. The number of units loaded is entered into a waybill, both the contact person at the collection point and the driver sign the waybill to confirm the number of units that were loaded.

From the premises of collection, the driver travels directly to the area of delivery. On many occasions, the driver drives through the night; but there are appointed stop-overs where the drivers can sleep over to continue travelling the following day. *3Wings* appoints two drivers for each truck, particularly for the long distances so that the drivers can alternate. The trucks do not necessarily travel to the final destination but to an agreed upon location in the destination's surrounding area where they meet Grant Gibbs. Thereafter, Grant Gibbs and the trucks travel together to the final destination for the safety of both parties and also as a precaution should the trucks be unable to travel on the intricate roads (de Jager & de Jager, 2016).

Drivers are requested to arrive at the delivery point in advance of the precise time of the handover, in order to offload and lay out the rollers before the function (Gibbs & Rigby, 2016). Although they are not expected to, *3Wings* drivers do assist *Hippo Roller* with laying out the rollers (Gibbs & Rigby, 2016). Furthermore, for a successful delivery, drivers (regardless of the transport company) are expected to exhibit an understanding of the rural environmental scenario as well as possess patience during the set-up of the rollers, despite their tight trip schedules (Gibbs & Rigby, 2016).

At the delivery point, the relevant contact person signs the proof of delivery to confirm that he/she received the correct number of units. The location of the handover is sometimes particularly rural and there have been times when the trucks are able to get to the location but have difficulty getting out (Gibbs & Rigby, 2016). Therefore, both parties take this into account when first booking a particular vehicle. Alternatively, *Hippo Roller* schedules a number of smaller loads in vehicles that are better suited for rural environments and infrastructure (Gibbs & Rigby, 2016). At the end of a delivery, the *3Wings* driver contacts head office to inform them that the delivery is complete. Thereafter, *3Wings* head office calls *Hippo Roller* to inquire of the quality and sufficiency of the service. The proof of delivery is scanned and sent through to *Hippo Roller*, regardless of whether it was Grant Gibbs or a donor who signed it off. At this point, the service is considered complete.

4.5.2.3 *Challenges and limitations*

The challenges faced during *Hippo Roller* operations are often due to the rural environments that are unlike the typical areas that *3Wings* transport to. It is sometimes difficult to locate the actual destination because many times the delivery is made to a village that is not represented on any map; neither would there be signage nor GPS coordinates available (Gibbs & Rigby, 2016). In these cases, Grant Gibbs and the *3Wings* trucks meet in the nearest town and then a community member from the village leads them to the village together. There have also been occasions when, upon arrival, the community leader informed Grant Gibbs and the *3Wings* team that some of the rollers were to be distributed to an additional one or two villages, outside of the original destination, that house some of the other allocated beneficiaries (Gibbs & Rigby, 2016). Owing to this, there is no way of predicting the state of the roads on which the trucks would need to travel which poses a risk to the success of the delivery (de Jager & de Jager, 2016). Sometimes it is not even a road that the trucks have to travel on to get to the village, but the likes of a sand dune or even unkempt mountain pass (Gibbs & Rigby, 2016).

An additional challenge associated with deliveries in, often impoverished, rural areas is faced during the handing out of the rollers in a particular community. As it is the community leaders who ultimately decide to whom the rollers go; accordingly, not every community member receives a roller. Therefore, the challenge experienced by *3Wings* comes in when community members who ought not to receive rollers sometimes create a scramble for rollers in which *3Wings* drivers become caught (de Jager & de Jager, 2016). Related limitations include, firstly, *3Wings*' avoidance in sending trucks to areas that the company predicts would be unsafe for their drivers; and secondly, the transporter's aim to always make daytime deliveries (de Jager & de Jager, 2016). General challenges for *3Wings* include those difficulties connected to getting hold of the contact person of the rollers' final destination (de Jager & de Jager, 2016).

Challenges as such, require *3Wings* head office to keep in close contact with both their drivers and with Grant Gibbs to ensure the rollers do end up at the correct location timeously (de Jager & de Jager, 2016).

There are some challenges and limitations faced by *Hippo Roller* due to poor levels of collaboration with other transport providers in the organisation's supply chain. For instance, local shipping agents are unable to provide *Hippo Roller* with cost estimates for varying loads of rollers (Gibbs & Rigby, 2016). Consequently, *Hippo Roller* has to contact a particular shipping agent numerous times a week to gather quotes for various donors who express interest in sponsoring rollers. Many of these donors make their final decision based on the shipping cost. Therefore, not every request for a quote translates into business for the agent (Gibbs & Rigby, 2016), thereby creating a lot of unnecessary administration for both *Hippo Roller* and the shipping agent. Whereas, for the international shipments through EMS, a rate is quoted per kilogram from which *Hippo Roller* can make final-price estimates using their own software (Gibbs & Rigby, 2016).

If a transport provider supported *Hippo Roller* by means of collaboration, it would have a double-effect (Gibbs & Rigby, 2016). Firstly, if the transporter commits to providing the transport free of charge it would help to save *Hippo Roller's* operating costs (Gibbs & Rigby, 2016). Secondly, it would drop the price of a roller, making it more affordable and attractive for donors and sponsors to purchase (Gibbs & Rigby, 2016). Presently, the cost of an individual roller more than doubles with the cost of shipping. For example, rollers are sold at \$125 a unit and the shipping costs that are added on are typically between \$160 and \$170 (Gibbs & Rigby, 2016). Thus, lower total cost for the rollers could mean higher numbers of rollers purchased, thereby increasing the social impact in countries around the world (Gibbs & Rigby, 2016).

4.5.3 Financial structure and implications

Transport is provided by *3Wings* neither free of charge nor at a reduced rate, as *Hippo Roller* is considered no different from any corporate client (de Jager & de Jager, 2016). *3Wings* pride themselves in being competitive in the market and therefore, charge a fair rate and aim to provide a reliable service (de Jager & de Jager, 2016). Over the years, *Hippo Roller* came to prefer and trust *3Wings'* service above that of other transport providers (Gibbs & Rigby, 2016).

The transport costs for rollers differ locally and internationally. Locally, it costs approximately R150 per roller for counter-to-counter deliveries (of small quantities) through SAPO (Gibbs & Rigby, 2016). *Hippo Roller's* donors are quoted in advance, so they make a payment for the rollers and an additional payment for the transport. The prices of bulk deliveries with SAPO fluctuate between R75 and R110; excluding packaging because rollers are tough products that are not easily damaged and they are packed most efficiently when they are loose (Gibbs &

Rigby, 2016). Internationally, EMS charges a standard airfreight rate, but they do not charge *Hippo Roller* the full volumetric-weight rate that the organisation should be paying (Gibbs & Rigby, 2016). EMS do not charge according to the volumetric-weight because rollers do not weigh a lot; they weigh eight kilograms with the handles (Gibbs & Rigby, 2016). If the true volumetric-weight was charged, then *Hippo Roller* would be charged approximately 40 kilograms per roller (Gibbs & Rigby, 2016).

3Wings, on the other hand, charges per kilometre and not per kilogram. The transporter provides *Hippo Roller* with a standard rate for a truck which includes a tank of fuel, satellite tracking and the drivers' costs (de Jager & de Jager, 2016). Commercially, the rate is calculated regardless of the nature of the product loaded on the truck. However, the rate varies for deliveries outside of Johannesburg. For such deliveries, *Hippo Roller* is quoted a price per extra kilometre (de Jager & de Jager, 2016). Depending on how far in advance *Hippo Roller* requests a quote, *3Wings* quotes them either a "dry rate" or a "wet rate" (de Jager & de Jager, 2016). A dry rate excludes the costs of fuel; whereas, a wet rate does include fuel costs. Therefore, *Hippo Roller* is often quoted a dry rate when a query is made a few months in advance, whilst taking into consideration that the rate could increase according to the possible fuel prices at the time of delivery (de Jager & de Jager, 2016). Moreover, *3Wings* does not charge *Hippo Roller* according to volumetric-rates either, which would make the rate approximately three or four times higher than the current rate (de Jager & de Jager, 2016). *3Wings* provides a credit option for frequent clients, but *Hippo Roller* always pays for the service upfront which is preferred by *3Wings* (de Jager & de Jager, 2016).

For local deliveries, transport is one of the greatest expenses for *Hippo Roller* after personnel costs (Gibbs & Rigby, 2016). Exporting rollers has an even greater transport cost for the organisation; so much so that it is a limiting factor in the sense that *Hippo Roller* does not receive orders because the transport cost is considered too high for the donor (Gibbs & Rigby, 2016). Consequently, high transport costs have risen to be one of the biggest challenges faced by *Hippo Roller* as an organisation (Gibbs & Rigby, 2016). Typically, if the donor is an NPO or corporate, *Hippo Roller* suggests that they use the rollers as packaging material. Thus, if the donors in this instance have other products that need to go out, *Hippo Roller* recommends that they store the products inside the rollers because the opening is big enough and the weight of a roller is light enough that large quantities can fit inside of it (Gibbs & Rigby, 2016). Alternatively, because the rollers are so light, the products being transported can be bottom loaded whilst the rollers are top loaded because they do not cause any kind of damage (Gibbs & Rigby, 2016). Combining loads is, therefore, considered an alternative to save the client transport costs (Gibbs & Rigby, 2016).

4.5.4 *Managerial complexity, integration and interaction intensity*

From a business standpoint, *3Wings* sees its mission as one to make a difference in the courier environment of service (de Jager & de Jager, 2016) by means of providing exceptional service timeously and effectively (3Wings Logistics, 2016b). As the relationship between *Hippo Roller* and *3Wings* operates as a client-business relationship, integration with *3Wings*' everyday operations and business mission is natural.

The *3Wings* fleet consists of one-ton light delivery vehicles, four-ton trucks, eight-ton trucks and 10 - 36 ton trucks (3Wings Logistics, 2016c; de Jager & de Jager, 2016). For *Hippo Roller* operations, *3Wings* dedicates the relevant vehicle to only *Hippo Roller* deliveries as they do for other clients; thus, loads are never mixed (de Jager & de Jager, 2016). The organisations interact on only an operational level. Therefore, *Hippo Roller* deliveries prove no different from commercial deliveries on any level.

4.5.5 *Benefit sharing*

As the relationship with *Hippo Roller* is considered no different than a corporate client, there are no unique benefits derived from the relationship for either *Hippo Roller* or *3Wings*. The only major benefit to *3Wings* are the organisation's upfront and timeous payments (de Jager & de Jager, 2016). For *Hippo Roller*, it is the reliability of *3Wings*' service.

In terms of CSI activities, *3Wings* does not currently participate in humanitarian efforts for the purposes of CSI; indeed, *3Wings* does not have the capacity nor the capabilities to provide an ongoing service to humanitarian organisations free of charge (de Jager & de Jager, 2016). Rather, the company assists individuals on a personal level with *ad hoc* requests for transport assistance (de Jager & de Jager, 2016). For instance, *3Wings* has provided transport for small loads for members of the local church and related organisations at either a reduced price or at no cost (de Jager & de Jager, 2016). Alternatively, *3Wings* charges for only fuel. The company's biggest expense is fuel on which VAT cannot be claimed back. Therefore, with no return from the biggest expense, significant strain is placed on the small company of twenty employees and less than twenty vehicles (de Jager & de Jager, 2016). *3Wings* are registered as a BBBEE Level Four and qualify as an exempt micro enterprise. The business has opted not to pursue the fulfilment of the BBBEE scorecard as the benefit that would be derived for the business is viewed as minimal in comparison to the resources required to fulfil the scorecard (de Jager & de Jager, 2016).

The social impact of *Hippo Roller*'s distribution has been measured over a period of at least twenty years. Since its commencement, approximately 45 000 rollers have been distributed to 300 000 direct beneficiaries (calculated by seven beneficiaries per household), enabling 7 billion litres of water to be "rolled" over 500 million kilometres (Gibbs & Rigby, 2016; *Hippo*

Roller, 2016d). The impact of enabling more water to be transported is twofold: firstly, a strenuous daily task can now be completed in only a few times a week and in a less strenuous manner (*Hippo Roller*, 2016b). Secondly, community members are able to become more economically active as they are no longer distanced from their communities and families due to having to walk many kilometres each day to fetch water. The social impact is not, however, influenced by the current involvement of *3Wings*.

4.6 SUMMARY

The case descriptions in the chapter provide insight into the inner workings of the four transport collaborations in the study, as well as the unique context behind each collaboration. The descriptions constitute the foundation for data analysis (Chapter Five) which was purposed to uncover the composition of transport collaboration, particularly collaboration through strategic CSI.

CHAPTER FIVE: **ANALYSIS & SYNTHESIS**

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter synthesises and discusses the findings of the research (outlined in the previous chapter) in light of the four research questions and theoretical framework established at the offset of this study. Hence, the findings and implications thereof, are discussed and analysed together. The main objective of this study is to explore the possibility of, and establish a framework for, strategic CSI through road-transport collaborations between private transport providers and humanitarian organisations. Thus, by analysing and discussing the findings related to the secondary research questions in this chapter, the phenomenon of transport collaboration is broken down to reveal its composition, thereby resulting in a framework for transport collaboration at the end of the chapter.

The first section of the chapter identifies the most significant attributes present across the collaborations in the study (Section 5.2). Thereafter, the following section explores the degrees to which these attributes vary across the cases (Section 5.3). Thirdly, the attributes associated with a strategic CSI collaboration are uncovered (Section 5.4) in order to finally, determine the levels of collaboration with strategic CSI as the highest level of collaboration (Section 5.5). The final section also describes the collaboration framework.

5.2 COLLABORATION ATTRIBUTES

Attributes should be understood as the distinguishing features of a collaboration regardless of its context or type. There is a degree of variation that exists in each attribute, but this will be discussed in Section 5.3. Seven major attributes of transport collaboration emerged from the study and are listed in below:

- 1) Managerial complexity
- 2) Provision
- 3) Scope of activities
- 4) Communication
- 5) Motivation for collaboration
- 6) Benefits
- 7) Limitations

The operative word here is “major” as the underlying drivers and enablers that explain the degree of variation in each attribute could themselves be considered attributes (Austin, 2000: 71). However, they are not those that clearly identify the features of a collaboration.

The theoretical framework identified the composition of collaboration by Austin (2000) as the one that best incorporated the findings of a number of different authors. Austin (2000: 72) also found seven dominant attributes of collaboration which he deemed to categorise the nature of relationship between companies and humanitarian organisations. They are listed below:

- 1) Level of engagement
- 2) Importance to mission
- 3) Magnitude of resources
- 4) Scope of activities
- 5) Interaction level
- 6) Managerial complexity
- 7) Strategic value

The attributes described by Austin (2000: 72) could be identified (to a certain extent) in the collaborations of the present study, though they were not the most dominant. Indeed, to limit the study to a deductive analysis based on Austin's (2000: 72) attributes would have been to neglect the real context of the study's collaborations. Nevertheless, although the attributes that emerged from the present study may appear similar to some of those proposed by Austin (2000: 72), their identification differs. Austin's (2000: 72) attributes will henceforth be referred to as "theoretical attributes".

5.2.1 *Managerial complexity*

<i>Attribute definition</i>	The structure of transport function – the processes, structure and procedures behind collection and delivery and how the planning and execution of transport is completed.
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Managerial complexity would be an inevitable attribute of any collaboration and it was no different in the present study, although, the understanding of managerial complexity may differ across theory. Managerial complexity in the present study refers to the structure of transport function in a collaboration. That is, the processes, structure and procedures behind the planning and execution of collections and deliveries. Managerial complexity is relevant to both parties as planning and execution requires input from both the humanitarian organisation and the company.

The theoretical attribute of managerial complexity refers to whether a collaboration could be a considered a simple task or a complex undertaking. With the likes of greater levels of interaction, stronger engagements and greater magnitude of resources deployed, as theory suggests, the overall management of the collaboration is deemed increasingly complex but not necessarily "complicated". Thus, managerial complexity in theory is determined by the number, frequency and magnitude of inputs into (and outputs of) the collaboration; in other words, the extent of the intricacies of a collaboration.

However, the complexity of management in this sense is dependent on the nature of the humanitarian organisation's need. Accordingly, the response to some humanitarian organisation's needs require greater levels of complexity than others. Therefore, determining the strength of collaboration based on managerial complexity as defined in theory would not bear a true indication of the level of the collaboration. Consequently, managerial complexity here refers not to the extent of the intricacies of a collaboration but rather how transport provision is structured to result in either a straightforward or complicated undertaking – regardless of said “intricacies”.

5.2.2 *Provision*

<i>Attribute definition</i>	The physical resources, human resources, capabilities and capacities allocated by the business and/or humanitarian organisation for the purpose of the collaboration.
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Provision is another major attribute to consider when determining the level of humanitarian organisation and transporter collaborations. As an attribute, provision encompasses all that is given or allocated to the collaboration by the parties; therefore, it could be tangible or intangible.

Besides vehicles for transport, provision here includes reference to human resources in the form of manpower, staff teams and volunteers. In a different way, provision also takes account of the various forms of capacity that could be allocated to a collaboration, such as financial capacity and physical capacity. Financial capacity refers to the financial provision that is set for the collaboration (which includes the expenses absorbed by the respective parties) rather than the provision of financial aid as such. Physical capacity most often occurs in the form of storage space that is set aside for the use of the humanitarian organisation should the need arise. Another form of intangible provision is the provision of capabilities (skills, knowledge and expertise) to the collaboration.

The theoretical attribute of “resource transfer” refers to the type of resources provided by the company in a collaboration, specifically financial donations, in-kind donations and/or core competency exchanges. However, with attention on transport collaboration, this study's focus is on only the latter type of resource transfer. Therefore, to differentiate between the different degrees of provision in the same way as theory would be irrelevant.

Theory further determines that the level of collaborations could differ based on the magnitude of the resources that are exchanged (Austin, 2000: 72). However, as the present study reveals, the magnitude of transport provision depends on the needs of a particular humanitarian organisation and the particular resources of its company counterpart, since each humanitarian organisation differs in its needs and each company differs in its resource capacity. If resource

provision is measured on the basis of magnitude as theory suggests, then the questions “how big is big?” and “how small is small?” still remain. Thus, the magnitude of resources transferred is not a suitable determinant of the level of a collaboration in this case.

Burke and Oglesby's (2012: 18) measurement of resource provision in collaboration distinguishes between both the type of resources provided (financial aid versus core competency exchange) and whether the focus of the resource exchange is systematic provision or purposed to produce innovation. Including the focus of resource exchange as a measure of resource provision is more accurate, as the focus of provision is a clear determinant of how advanced a collaboration is; thereby, revealing at what level it potentially operates. However, the focus of resource exchange that is referred to by the authors speaks more of the underlying motivations of the party providing resources than of resource provision itself.

Indeed, the motivations that subtly operate in a collaboration prove noteworthy to consider. Yet, the present study revealed that they are not revealed in only resource exchange but in the other dealings and activities of the collaboration as well. Therefore, a new attribute, “motivation for collaboration” is introduced further on in the study. Rather than focus, magnitude or type, the attribute of provision in the present study is identified by how the resources, capacities and capabilities are apportioned by the collaborating partners to the collaboration.

5.2.3 *Scope of activities*

<i>Attribute definition</i>	The range of activities performed in the collaboration (transport-related and other) and the geographical borders of said activities.
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The scope of activities is identified by what the collaborators do and where they do it. As the collaboration involves two parties, this attribute takes into consideration the activities initiated by the company together with those initiated by the humanitarian organisation. Activities refer to anything that is actively done by the parties in the collaboration; thus, activities can range in type. They also allude to the capabilities of the party in question because a level of proficiency (capability) in a certain area is required before actually initiating the activity or service. In a corporate context, activities refer to the services offered by the company to the humanitarian organisation. In the humanitarian organisation's context, it is all that the organisation does to serve its beneficiaries.

Similarly, the geographical boundaries in which the activities take place also vary and can, consequently, impact the effectiveness (and level) of a collaboration. For instance, a transporter may not typically send vehicles (commercially) to all the areas in which the humanitarian organisation has beneficiaries. Alternatively, the areas to which the humanitarian

organisation intends to expand in the future might not be within a transporter's present commercial scope. Hence, geographical scope is important to consider together with the kind of activities in which the parties are involved.

The theoretical attribute of the same name also refers to the range of activities within a collaboration. Activities can range from those that aid the basic working of the operation to those that are intended to enhance the value obtained by the collaborating partners. Therefore, the attribute as defined in this research does not differ from the theoretical attribute except in the additional consideration of geographical scope.

5.2.4 **Communication**

<i>Attribute definition</i>	The type of information communicated at any point of engagement and interaction.
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Communication emerged quickly as one of the main attributes of collaboration in the study. It is an attribute identified by every point that the two parties interact and engage with each other in any given form, about any given topic, on any given platform.

The theoretical attributes of "level of engagement" and "interaction level" are the two most similar attributes to communication. Most theories on collaboration referred to the frequency of interaction as a determinant of the level of collaboration (Austin, 2000: 69; Skjoett-Larsen *et al.*, 2003: 535; Frey *et al.*, 2006: 387). This was due to the consideration that some parties might only participate in exchanges (of varying sort) on a low and/or philanthropic level where interactions were synonymous with the number of times an exchange occurred. Additionally, philanthropic levels of collaboration also implied a minimisation of communication between the parties (Austin, 2000: 73). However, in the present collaborations, transport is supplied every time the humanitarian organisations require it. While, some humanitarian organisations require transport more frequently than others, but that would not imply a stronger collaboration. Therefore, the frequency of interaction was not a relevant determinant of the level of a collaboration in the present study.

The level of engagement refers to the platforms that the parties engage; however, in the present study many of the collaborations did not engage on more than one platform. *Laser Logistics* and *SSB* do indeed engage on the Management Board of the humanitarian organisation unlike the other cases. Nevertheless, this would not be a worthwhile determinant of collaboration-level if the kind of information that is addressed on the board between the parties does not advance the collaboration. Similarly, the study revealed that whether parties in the collaboration communicated frequently or not could not be an indication of the strength of the relationship, unless the information communicated was strategic in nature.

Thus, “level of engagement” and “interaction level” are a company’s motivation for maintaining a collaboration is not only limited to whether the collaboration is central to its organisational mission or not, but extends to other possibilities that, when considered, provide a fuller insight by which to determine the level of the collaboration. Dissolved into the attribute of “communication type” which addresses the kind of information communicated. Parties can communicate frequently or infrequently, on strategic boards or not, but the kind of information communicated is the ultimate determinant of whether a collaboration is operating at a high or low level.

5.2.5 *Motivation for collaboration*

<i>Attribute definition</i>	The driver of continued collaboration.
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Motivation for collaboration is an attribute that describes the underlying motives that drive the company, specifically, to continue its collaboration with its humanitarian organisation counterpart. It is not an attribute that can be explicitly found within each collaboration but one that is revealed behind many of the other attributes in operation. The indicators that revealed the motivation for collaboration include:

- The reason behind the inauguration of the collaboration
- The humanitarian organisation’s experience of the company’s assistance
- The company’s experience of the humanitarian organisation in the collaboration
- Importance of the collaboration to the company’s mission
- The company’s response to challenges
- The company’s overall approach to, and attitude towards, the collaboration
- The company’s flexibility toward their service to the humanitarian organisation
- The preconditions of assistance to the humanitarian organisation

The theoretical attribute most like motivation for collaboration is “importance to mission”. This theoretical attribute notes that the degree to which the collaboration is central to the mission of both the company and humanitarian organisation is indicative of the stage of the collaboration (Austin, 2000: 72). This is very closely linked to the motivation for collaboration. If the collaboration is central to the fulfilment of an organisation’s (company and/or humanitarian organisation) mission, then the very motivation to maintain the collaboration is to fulfil an organisational mission. Thus, the theoretical attribute of “importance to mission” falls within the more encompassing attribute of motivation for collaboration.

5.2.6 Benefits

<i>Attribute definition</i>	<i>Humanitarian organisation</i>	The advantages that the humanitarian organisation gains due to the collaboration
	<i>Company</i>	The spin-offs the company receives due to the collaboration

The overarching attribute of “benefits” brings immediate attention to the level that a collaboration possibly operates at. Benefits gained by the humanitarian organisation and company are those aspects that aid the respective organisations in some way. Essentially, benefits add to the value obtained in a collaboration and reveal the impact on the organisation owing to the collaboration.

“Strategic value” is the corresponding attribute theoretically which is identified by the flows of value in the collaboration and which considers in which direction these flows occur. More specifically, it identifies the flow of value that has strategic benefit. This is reminiscent of Audy *et al.* (2012: 634) who note that a binding-factor of (inter-firm) collaborations is when the parties can obtain greater benefits in collaboration than when operating independently. It is significant to consider the benefits obtained by the company and humanitarian organisation respectively in order to establish how the benefits weight against one another, or in the terminology of theory, to establish to what extent the flow of benefit is one-way or two-way.

In essence, the theoretical attribute and the present attribute are not identified much differently except that the present attribute accounts for the benefits of the parties separately. Also, to avoid ambiguity, the term “benefits” is preferred to “strategic value”. It is the benefits themselves that hold value and not all benefits necessarily hold strategic value. Thus, by identifying the type of benefit first, a measure of strategic value can, thereafter, be calculated in order to establish the level of a collaboration.

5.2.7 Limitations

<i>Attribute definition</i>	<i>Humanitarian organisation</i>	The way in which the collaboration hampers the humanitarian organisation's growth or disadvantages the humanitarian organisation's ability to fulfil its mandate.
	<i>Company</i>	The way in which the collaboration takes away from or impedes on the company's productivity and/or business operations.

Unique to the study is the inclusion of limitations as an attribute of collaboration. Limitations refer to the extent to which the collaboration disadvantages either of the partners' individual mandate. Although a collaboration could be so strong as to demonstrate a high degree of integration when the partners operate together, ultimately, they still remain separate organisations with their own mandates/missions.

Most extant literature references strategic CSI as CSI that maximises business and social benefits for the respective parties (Mersham & Skinner, 2008: 241; Trialogue, 2015: 150). However, it is no good if the collaboration brings major benefits to one party whilst impeding the other's ability to fulfil its organisational mandate. Therefore, limitations ought to be considered together with benefits when identifying the level of a collaboration, particularly when measuring its nearness to strategic CSI.

5.3 DEGREES OF ATTRIBUTE VARIATION

It is the respective degree of each of the attributes in a collaboration that, when considered together, determine the level of that collaboration. Extant theory strongly suggests that the more integrative the collaboration, the higher the level (or the more advanced the stage) it operates (Austin, 2000: 69; Skjoett-Larsen *et al.*, 2003: 535; Frey *et al.*, 2006: 387; Audy *et al.*, 2012: 635). Meaning that, in a highly integrated collaboration, whilst the collaborating partners remain separate organisations, when they come together for the purpose of the collaboration they become like one organisation. Thus, the highest level (or stage) of collaboration is suggested to represent the combination of attribute degrees that are evident in a highly integrated collaboration. This is illustrated in a collaboration continuum in Table 5-1.

Table 5-1: Collaboration Continuum

Nature of relationship [attributes]	Stages of collaboration and their respective attribute degrees		
	Stage I (Philanthropic)	Stage II (Transactional)	Stage III (Integrative)
Level of engagement	Low	→	High
Importance to mission	Peripheral	→	Central
Magnitude of resources	Small	→	Big
Scope of activities	Narrow	→	Broad
Interaction level	Infrequent	→	Intensive
Managerial complexity	Simple	→	Complex
Strategic value	Minor	→	Major

Source: adapted from (Austin, 2000: 72)

The descriptions of the degrees of variation (those words listed under each stage in the table above) according to Austin (2000: 72) seem to refer (implicitly) to an assumed “ideal” collaboration against which parties should measure themselves when determining the different degrees to which they operate, and consequently the level at which they operate. For instance, the degree to which partners engage in a collaboration (engagement level attribute) is determined based on how that particular collaboration compares with the said ideal collaboration.

Without a clear picture of what that ideal collaboration is, his use of descriptive words such as low and high, small and big, narrow and broad, infrequent and frequent are biased to the

opinion of the parties in question. For instance, what could be considered “small” resource provision by one collaboration, might be considered “big” by another. Similarly, the scope of activities could be considered narrow by one evaluator of the collaboration and broad by another, depending on what collaboration “ideal” each evaluator has in mind. Accordingly, the present study revealed that a more fitting way to identify the degree of variation in the attributes of collaboration is to consider how they relate to ordinary practice – the business’ existing practices and humanitarian organisation’s existing practices. Hence, the degrees of variation as induced from the present study (Table 5-2) are unlike those identified theoretically in the previous table.

Table 5-2: Degrees of attribute variation in transport collaborations

Collaboration Attributes			
Managerial complexity	Complex	Cooperative	Standard
Provision	Significant	Favourable	Balanced
Scope of activities	Outside of boundaries	Elastic boundaries	Within boundaries
Communication	Operational	Internal, not operational	External, not operational
Motivation for collaboration	Practical fit	Organisational values	Strategic alignment
Benefits: Company	External recognition	Stakeholder benefit	Competitive
Benefits: Humanitarian organisation	Efficiency	Sustainability	Large scale operation
Limitations: Company	Major	Moderate	Minor
Limitations: Humanitarian organisation	Major	Moderate	Minor

With the relation to ordinary practice, the ambiguity surrounding varying opinions of collaboration ideals, or questions of “How big is big?” and “How frequent is frequent?” are nullified. Furthermore, due to the uniqueness of each party in each collaboration, measuring attribute variation in comparison to ordinary practice allows parties to consider at which degree they operate respective to their own practice. This means of comparison is preferable to comparison against a presumed “ideal” which may not be the same for everyone. By this means, there is assurance of an objective and more accurate depiction of the level that partners collaborate, regardless of their size or context as compared to other collaborations.

5.3.1 *Three-sphere analysis tool*

The empirical findings reveal that the seven attributes of collaboration can be clustered in three groups due to the manner in which the degrees of each group of attributes vary. The three groups are, henceforth, referred to as “spheres”. When each sphere is analysed, according to how its attributes vary in a particular collaboration, it reveals something unique about the collaboration. When analysed, the first sphere of attributes reveals the degree of integration in a collaboration. The second sphere of attributes reveals to what extent the collaborators consider the impact of the collaboration. The third sphere reveals the actual impact of the

collaboration on the respective collaborators. The “three-sphere analysis tool”, therefore, describes the application of the three spheres during the process of analysing a transport collaboration. The three-sphere analysis tool is illustrated in Figure 5-1 below.

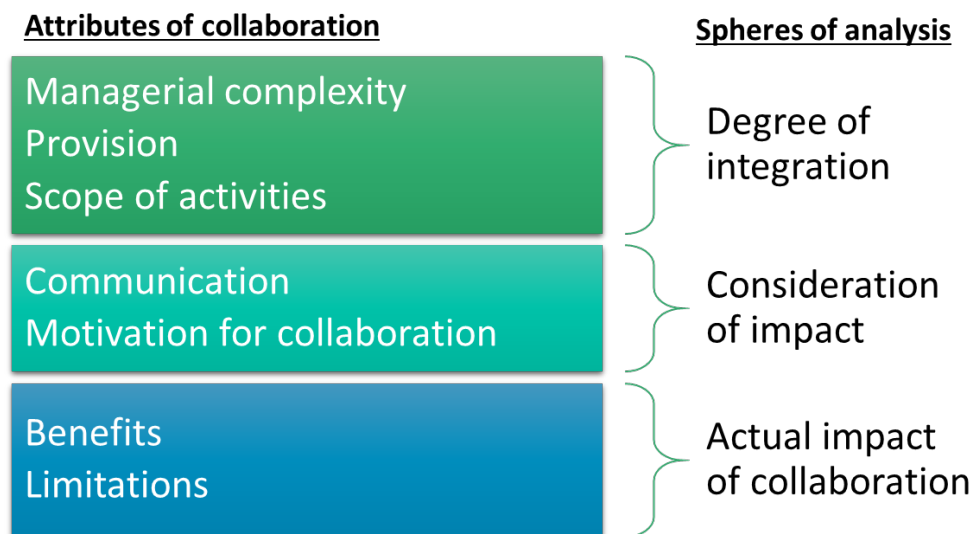


Figure 5-1: Three-sphere analysis tool for transport collaborations

In the first sphere (based on empirical findings), the variation in the attributes of managerial complexity, provision and scope of activities revealed to what degree the collaborations were integrated. The study assumes that the more a collaboration operates in alignment with ordinary business and humanitarian organisation practices, the better the partners' integration and the better the integration of the collaboration with the partners' respective existing operations. Conversely, the more an organisation has to change its ordinary practices to suit the other in the collaboration, the less integrated with existing operations the collaboration becomes.

In the second sphere, the variation in the attributes of communication and motivation for collaboration revealed the degree of the partners' consideration of the impact of the collaboration. Where inter-firm collaborations work toward shared financial gain, cross-sector collaborations like those in the study have to consider two separate areas of impact. These are the financial impact on the company as well as, the social impact facilitated through the humanitarian organisation.

In the third sphere, the attributes of benefits and limitations revealed how the actual impact of the collaboration on the respective parties differs from ordinary practice. Ultimately, the actual impact reveals the benefits and limitations that would not have been realised had the collaboration not existed.

With all the above considered, one could, therefore, determine that when defining the level of collaboration these three spheres ought to be analysed. The first sphere of analysis (degree

of integration) can be analysed by considering how the attributes of managerial complexity, provision and scope of activities vary from ordinary practice. Indeed, merely considering the degree of integration might be sufficient for an inter-firm collaboration as that would be the point of ultimate effectiveness and efficiency. But, where collaborations between humanitarian organisations and companies are concerned, the two additional spheres illustrated in Figure 5-1 also ought to be considered. The second sphere of analysis (consideration of impact) should be analysed by considering how the attributes of communication and motivation for collaboration vary from ordinary practice. The third sphere of analysis (actual impact) should be analysed by considering how the attributes of benefits and limitations vary from ordinary practice. Essentially, these spheres of analysis would have to be measured in order to determine at what level (or how close to strategic CSI) a humanitarian organisation-company transport collaboration operates.

5.3.2 *First sphere of analysis: Degree of integration*

The first three attributes analysed in this section form part of the 'degree of integration' sphere of analysis, as highlighted in Figure 5-2 below.

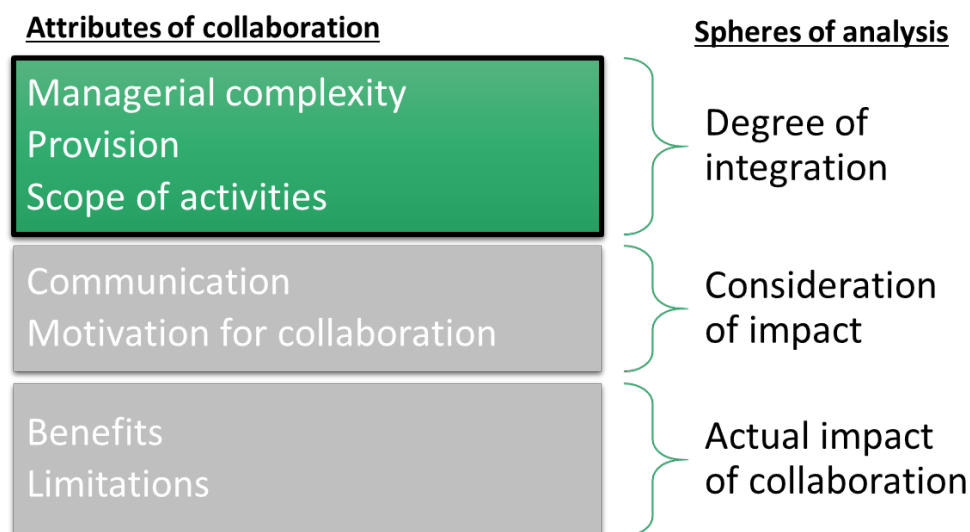


Figure 5-2: First sphere of analysis: Degree of integration

Managerial complexity, provision and scope of activities are measured in accordance to how they compare with those in ordinary practice, in order to determine their degree of synchronisation with existing operations. If there is little differentiation, it is indicative of strong synchronisation and therefore, strong integration. Whereas, if there is greater differentiation it would suggest that the collaboration is less integrated with ordinary practice. Subsequently, the collaboration would operate separately from existing operations instead of together with existing operations. No single attribute can determine the overall degree of integration, only when all three attributes are considered together will they present a picture of integration.

5.3.2.1 *Managerial complexity*

<i>Degrees of variation</i>	Standard (=) Cooperative (< >) Complex (≠)
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The various cases of the study revealed three degrees of managerial complexity:

- A. Standard management
- B. Cooperative management
- C. Complex management

All procedures, processes and structures of operation across the cases could be assigned one of these degrees. Standard managerial complexity refers to every management procedure that matches ordinary practice; whereas, cooperative and complex management indicate a degree of variation from ordinary practice – one more extreme than the other.

There are numerous processes, procedures and structures within each managerial area in an organisation which could range in type among different organisations. The eight listed areas are the all-encompassing areas identified in the study by which managerial complexity can be analysed:

- i. Planning procedures
- ii. Execution procedures
- iii. Financial structuring
- iv. Transport strategy
- v. Relationship management
- vi. Administrative procedures
- vii. Period of transportation
- viii. Knowledge requirements

The incidences of managerial complexity discussed in the sections to follow are examples of what can be found in transport collaborations. They should be used as only a guideline to discovering the complexities in transport collaborations that are not included in the present study.

A. Standard management

A humanitarian organisation's management is standard if its transport-related processes, structure and procedures are the same (=) as they would be with any transport provider. In other words, the humanitarian organisation's management function is not modified to suit the transporter. On the other hand, a company's management would be standard if its processes, structure and procedures are the same as they would be for a paying client (considering that

the transporter is providing a service to the humanitarian organisation as they do a client). The company's ordinary management of transportation services would not have been modified for the purpose of the humanitarian organisation.

Table 5-3 below presents some of the key incidences of standard management present in the cases of collaboration in the study. The evidence of standard management detailed in the table below showed little to no discrepancy from ordinary practice.

Table 5-3: Key incidences of standard management complexity

Management area	Company	Humanitarian organisation
Planning procedures	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Scheduling methods and the application of dedicated loads or shared loads - Route allocation - Safety precautions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Decision making procedures are unaffected by the collaboration
Execution procedures	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The consolidation of loads at the warehouse - Execution cycle (collection and drop off or only collection or only drop off) - Key performance indices - Post-execution procedures - Transport methods for all road networks leading to the humanitarian organisation's beneficiaries are applied in ordinary business practice 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Consolidation of loads before transport - The handover processes - Transport procurement protocol
Financial structuring	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - humanitarian organisation is assigned an account as would a client 	—
Transport strategy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Clients are first priority though not necessarily at the expense of the humanitarian organisation 	—
Relationship management	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Congruent with management procedures of client relationships 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Platforms and structures used to promote the external recognition of the company already exist
Administrative procedures	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - No divergence from ordinary administrative requirements 	—
Period of transportation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Transport services rendered alongside commercial services over the same time period 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Transport takes place over the humanitarian organisation's desired time period
Knowledge requirements	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - No need to gain new cultural understanding 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - No need to learn new logistics knowledge to complete the operation

Naturally, the management areas listed are not exhaustive; however, they are the culmination of areas across the cases in the study that appeared unaffected by the collaboration.

B. Cooperative management

Cooperative management, from the perspective of the humanitarian organisation, is when the processes, structure and procedures of the humanitarian organisation are managed with consideration of the transport company. They show evidence of “give or take” (< >) on behalf of the humanitarian organisation for the purpose of the operation. From the perspective of the

company, it is the processes, structures and procedures that are managed with the humanitarian organisation in mind. There is give or take (compromise) on behalf of the company for the purpose of the operation.

Thus, cooperative management demonstrates some flexibility from ordinary practice. The nature of cooperative management does not typically “steal” from either organisation but is founded on agreement and seeks a compromise for mutual benefit. Table 5-4 illustrates some of the key incidences of cooperative management across the cases. The evidence of cooperative management that was found across the cases in the areas listed below showed some flexibility from ordinary practice.

Table 5-4: Key incidences of cooperative management complexity

Management area	Company	Humanitarian organisation
Planning procedures	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Vehicle scheduling considered as preliminary rather than exact - Delivery schedule accommodates humanitarian organisation's preference - Planning for mutual flexibility in the case of growth - Joint planning for humanitarian organisation deliveries 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Joint planning for deliveries - Planning of handover timetable to suit company's schedule
Execution procedures	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Flexible load size limitations - The incorporation of sister-companies or other branches to assist with particular legs of transport - Company reworks some of the humanitarian organisation's procedures to match theirs (for instance, labelling methods) - Detouring off predetermined routes on client deliveries in order to deliver both the client's goods and the humanitarian organisation's goods in the same run 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - humanitarian organisation allows a time period for delivery rather than a specific date - The humanitarian organisation meets the company's vehicles half-way on difficult routes - Where possible, the humanitarian organisation plans for alternative transport for small loads
Financial structuring	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Modification of financial model to suit the collaboration 	—
Transport strategy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Outsourcing assistance from other branches or service providers 	—
Relationship management	—	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Providing means of exposure for the company is a visible function of the collaboration and thus, something intentionally planned for which would not be there for ordinary operations
Administrative procedures	—	—
Period of transportation	—	—
Knowledge requirements	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Staff preparation for cultural differences in humanitarian organisation communities 	—

In this study, no incidences related to cooperative administrative procedures or period of transportation were found. Important to note is that the incidences of cooperative management identified in each collaboration, like the other attributes, are considered in relation to the partners' unique ordinary practices. Therefore, cooperative management could very well be identified in management areas not included in Table 5-4. The areas mentioned in standard management, together with those areas in cooperative management and complex management, are areas that could be found to fall under any one of the three degrees of management.

C. Complex management

Complex management occurs when the processes, structures and procedures applied in the collaboration are not the same (≠) in any way to ordinary practice. From the perspective of companies, these are clear areas that are unsynchronised with existing business practice. Similarly, humanitarian organisations demonstrate complex management when the humanitarian organisation adjusts its own practices for the sake of the collaboration. In either case, there is no compromise, but rather a single party is left with no choice but to create new processes, structures or procedures to suit the collaboration. Table 5-5 presents some of the key incidences of complex management across the cases.

Table 5-5: Key incidences of complex management

Management area	Company	Humanitarian organisation
Planning procedures	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Vehicles are taken out from commercial obligations for dedication to humanitarian organisation operations - The planning of unfamiliar routes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The rescheduling of handovers even after a plan has been cooperatively established - humanitarian organisation must negotiate with its donors alternative methods of transportation to reduce transport costs
Execution procedures	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Difficulty contacting beneficiaries of deliveries due to poor infrastructure - Sorting loads based on foreign codes (the humanitarian organisation's codes) - Overtime is unavoidable - No synchronisation with existing practices - No delivery schedule flexibility (if deliveries end early for a day, the next day's deliveries cannot be made in that time) 	—
Transport strategy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - An alternative transport strategy is applied for the humanitarian organisation operation alone 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - One transporter does not meet every need of the humanitarian organisation therefore multiple strategies are employed - Where the employment of a multiple-transporter collaboration could improve the operation's efficiency, the humanitarian organisation is limited to plan with only one transporter
Administrative procedures	—	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Organisation spends additional time negotiating prices with multiple transport providers
Period of transportation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - humanitarian organisation's transport needs conflict with the company's peak business period 	—
Knowledge requirements	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Staff preparation for cultural differences in humanitarian organisation communities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Where the transporter cannot assist, humanitarian organisation must learn special VAT and customs clearance practices

The evidence of complex management that was found across the cases showed areas where one of the parties in the collaboration was in a position where the only way to move forward was to completely diverge from ordinary practice. Alternatively, where no solution was found, these incidences simply added to the complication of the operation.

Ultimately, management is complex, not necessarily when there is a high number of intricacies in the collaboration, but rather when there are an increased number of intricacies in comparison to ordinary practice that add to the complication of the operation. Additionally, complex management sees the application of methods or procedures to counter challenges in the collaboration, but which might disadvantage a particular organisation's existing operation in some way.

5.3.2.2 *Provision*

<i>Degrees of variation</i>	Balanced Favourable Significant
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The various cases of the study revealed three degrees of resource provision:

- A. Balanced
- B. Favourable
- C. Significant

The various instances of physical and human resource provision by the humanitarian organisation and the company; as well as the companies' financial allocation could all be measured by one of these three degrees of variation. Included in the measure of provision are the various degrees of skills and capacities that the organisations commit to the collaboration. Considering that the study is on transport collaboration, the focus of analysis is on all that is associated with transportation rather than what is provided for the backroom activities of the respective organisations.

The best way to understand how a degree is allocated to each instance of provision is to imagine a scale with an organisation's provision for ordinary practice on one side and its provision for the collaboration on the other. Thus, balanced provision suggests that what is provided for ordinary practice and the collaboration are equal in weight. Whereas, the subsequent degrees demonstrate that what is provided for the collaboration weighs either slightly or significantly heavier than ordinary practice.

A. Balanced provision

Provision is balanced when the resources provided for the collaboration do not differ from what would be provided in ordinary practice. From the companies' perspective, provision, therefore, favours neither existing clientele nor the humanitarian organisation necessarily. Most references to balanced provision were made to the companies in question rather than the humanitarian organisations. This is because in a transport collaboration, most of the varying resources and capacities of humanitarian organisations are allocated to activities outside of the collaboration rather than to the function of transportation itself. After all, it is the company that manages the humanitarian organisation's transport. Figure 5-3 illustrates some key incidences of balanced provision.

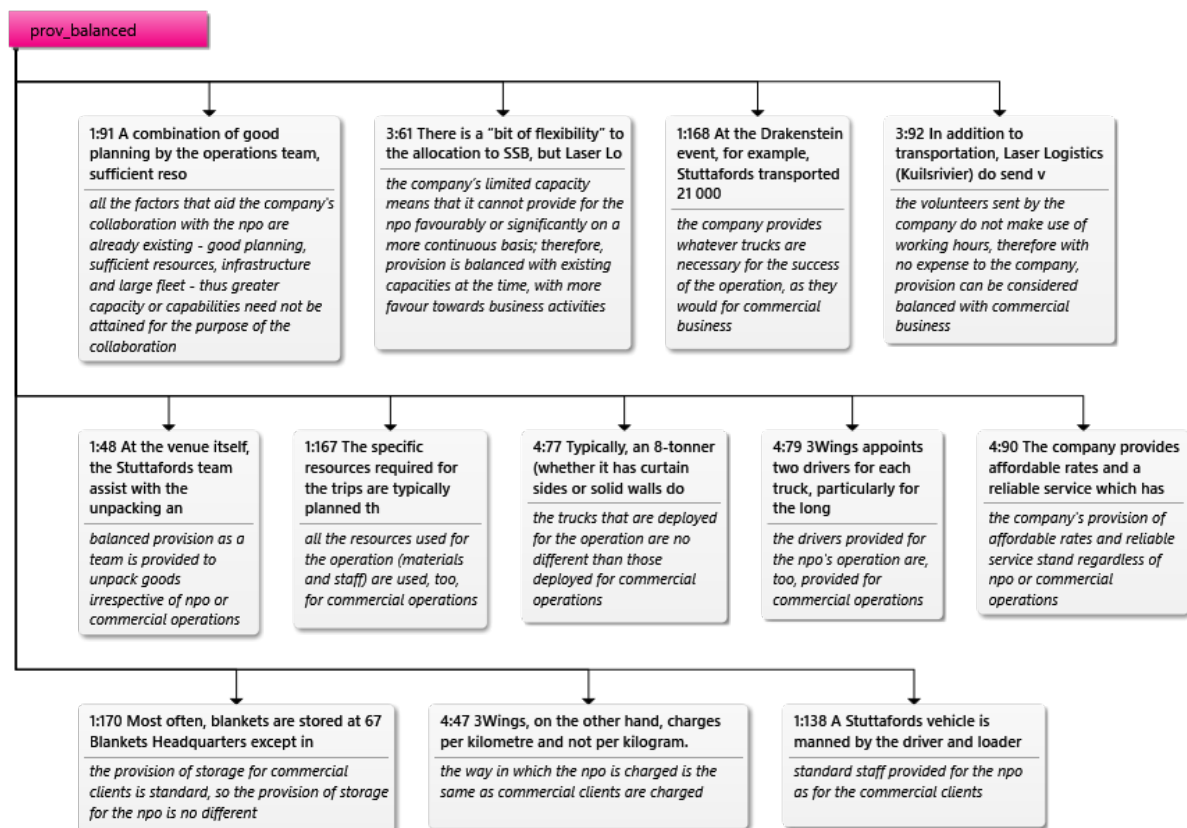


Figure 5-3: Key incidences of balanced provision

Incidences of balanced provision by a company, as illustrated above, demonstrate that all capacities and skills that are allocated to the collaboration are already existing. Thus, nothing new (such as skill provision, resource capacities, availability of infrastructure and vehicle volume) needs to be acquired to support the humanitarian organisation. On the other hand, a company's capacity might already be limited, even for ordinary practice. Thus, despite demonstrating balanced provision, not all of the needs of the humanitarian organisation can be met.

In terms of physical resources, the number of trucks scheduled by a company typically match the requirements of the humanitarian organisation, as would be the case in ordinary practice. Therefore, it is not relevant to specify how many trucks are scheduled in each instance as they are scheduled in accordance to a unique need – no more, no less (hence, balanced provision). The same can be said for the type of trucks, if the type of trucks deployed matches the need of the humanitarian organisation then it is not relevant to consider this as any sort of favourable or significant provision.

The human resources which meet a degree of balanced provision are the cases when volunteers are mobilised without a deduction of working hours. In other words, the duration of volunteer-work is regarded as ordinary working hours by the company. Therefore, provision

can be considered balanced as no working hours need to be made up by means of overtime. Additionally, where human resources such as unpacking teams, packing teams and drivers are mobilised for client services as well as for the humanitarian organisation, it is considered balanced provision.

In some cases, a company may not provide a financial allocation to the humanitarian organisation but rather charge standard transport rates. Technically, this ought to be considered balanced provision as clients are not provided a financial allocation either. However, whether this type of agreement could be considered a collaboration will be addressed later on in the study.

B. Favourable provision

Favourable provision is not that which is unusual to ordinary practice, nor is it the provision of resources or capacities that do not exist. Favourable provision is best identified by the capacities, skills and resources provided by one party to assist the other in the collaboration which were not necessarily planned for. It could be considered a kind of concession or, quite literally, a favour. Figure 5-4 illustrates every incidence of favourable provision across the cases of the study.

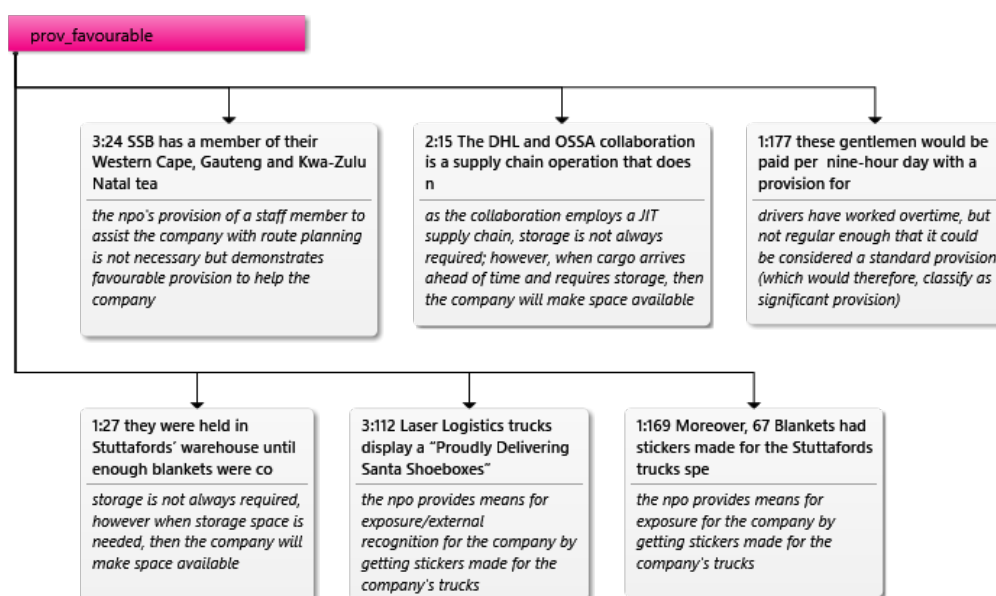


Figure 5-4: Incidences of favourable provision

Although there may be a number of other incidences of favourable provision, only a few were uncovered in the present study. When a collaboration employs, specifically, a just in time (JIT) supply chain strategy then long-term storage is not typically needed. However, in the event that a humanitarian organisation's cargo arrives early and does require storage before the operation and the company makes this space available, it can be considered favourable provision. The company did have available storage space and allocated it for the humanitarian

organisation's use, despite it being unplanned. Another form of favourable provision is the occasional overtime-provision of staff to assist the humanitarian organisation which is not obligatory or unavoidable.

If the company's provision in the collaboration is intended to meet the transport needs of the humanitarian organisation, then the provision of the humanitarian organisation should be to meet the "needs" of the transporter. Two of these instances were revealed. Firstly, the provision of promotional stickers for exposure by a humanitarian organisation for its collaborating company's trucks. Secondly, the humanitarian organisation's provision of a member of staff, to assist with the company's planning, who is knowledgeable of the routes to and locations of beneficiaries as well as the logistical requirements thereof. These are two examples where the resources provided are not "out of reach" for the humanitarian organisation, but are, nevertheless, not a requirement of the collaboration. Hence, their classification as favourable provision.

C. Significant provision

Significant provision refers to those extra capacities, skills, resources and/or financial allocations that are unusual to ordinary practice. Furthermore, the provision is by one party for the benefit of the other on a significant scale, based on either the significant extent to which it extends beyond the norms of ordinary practice, or if it is a form of provision not typically provided for stakeholders in ordinary practice. Moreover, any form of provision beyond an organisation's capacity is significant as this implies that the organisation is providing resources or capacities that it does not actually possess at the time.

Although favourable provision is unplanned, it is still within a company's ability and/or capacity. Whereas, significant provision is both anticipatable and outside of ability and capacity. Significant provision holds somewhat of a risk for the organisation. The best explanation of the distinction between this degree of provision in comparison to the former is to consider the incidences of significant provision across the cases. Figure 5-5 illustrates the key incidences of significant provision.

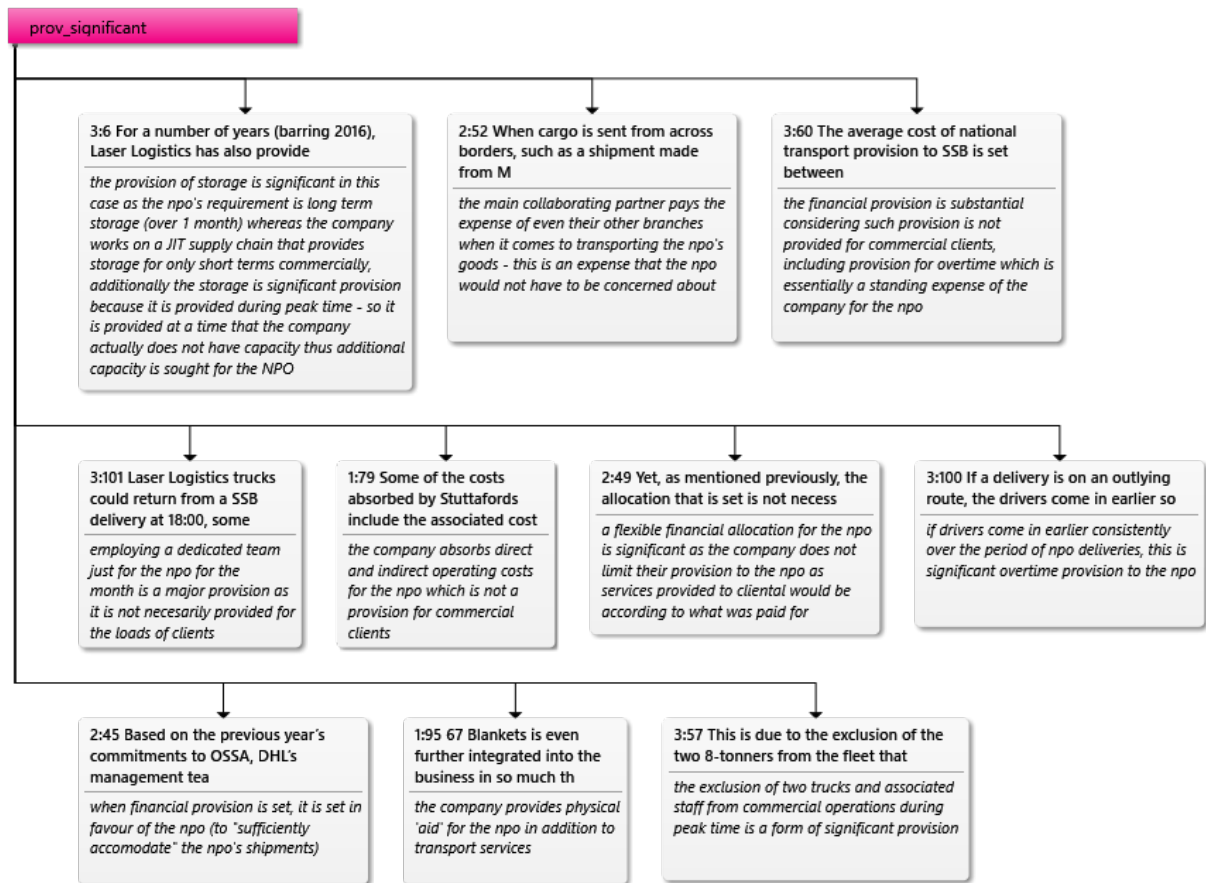


Figure 5-5: Key incidences of significant provision

In terms of financial provision, where the transport provider absorbs all the associated costs of transport, it is considered significant provision as this would never be the case in commercial operations. Furthermore, if the transport provider sets a flexible allocation for the provision of transport for the humanitarian organisation it is also considered significant as ordinary practice would stipulate that the services rendered to clientele are determined by what the client paid for. However, in this instance, the company would continue to increase the provision to suit the humanitarian organisation's transport needs rather than capping the provision. Another instance of significant financial provision is when the company involves sister-companies or other branches in the collaboration but at their own expense. In other words, when capacities are outsourced and paid for by the company for the purposes of the humanitarian organisation – on condition that outsourcing in these cases is not a characteristic of ordinary practice – it is significant.

Where the provision of physical resources is concerned, particularly that of storage, it is to a significant degree when the term of storage offered to the humanitarian organisation is unlike the term offered to commercial clients. For instance, when long term storage is required by the humanitarian organisation and the company provides it even though it typically offers only short term storage for clients (satisfying the requirements of a JIT supply chain), essentially the

company is offering capacities that it does not have. This qualifies as significant provision. Additionally, there are cases where the company willingly provides a form of “aid” for its humanitarian organisation counterpart. As the company would not ordinarily provide additional resources (especially those unrelated to its core competencies), this is considered significant provision. There may be occasions where trucks are excluded from commercial operations for a long-term period in order to be dedicated to the humanitarian organisation’s transport requirements. This is significant provision when the term of service is unusual to ordinary practice or when the trucks are dedicated in a time period when the company has limited capacity such as peak business periods.

Human resource provision is considered significant when overtime is a consistent consequence (or even requirement) of transport services to the humanitarian organisation. It is inevitable that overtime will occur during commercial operations; however, if it is consistent enough over the period of provision to the humanitarian organisation, it is a form of significant provision of human resources. Moreover, where the company dedicates a team of staff to the humanitarian organisation’s operation for a term longer than a team would be dedicated to a particular client’s service, it is also a form of significant provision.

5.3.2.3 *Scope of activities*

<i>Degrees of variation</i>	Within boundaries Elastic boundaries Outside of boundaries
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The various cases of the study revealed three degrees of the scope of activities in a collaboration:

- A. Activities within the boundaries of ordinary practice
- B. Elastic boundaries where activities are occasionally outside of the boundaries of ordinary practice
- C. Activities predominantly outside of the boundaries of normal operation

The same is applied to the locations in which the said activities take place: within ordinary geographical boundaries, outside of ordinary geographical boundaries or occasionally outside of ordinary geographical boundaries. Geographical boundaries distinguish regional from cross-regional and/or cross-border deliveries. There is also a degree of differentiation between the locations within these boundaries which fall either within or outside of ordinary boundaries. For instance, it is within boundaries for certain transport providers to make deliveries to rural or farmland areas; whereas, for others these are outside of ordinary boundaries.

A. *Within boundaries*

Activities that are within the boundaries of ordinary practice are those activities that are the same as the activities of ordinary practice as well as those that take place within the same geographical scope of ordinary practice. Figure 5-6 illustrates the key incidences of activities that fall within the scope of ordinary activities in the organisations, including those which fall within the geographical boundaries of ordinary practice.

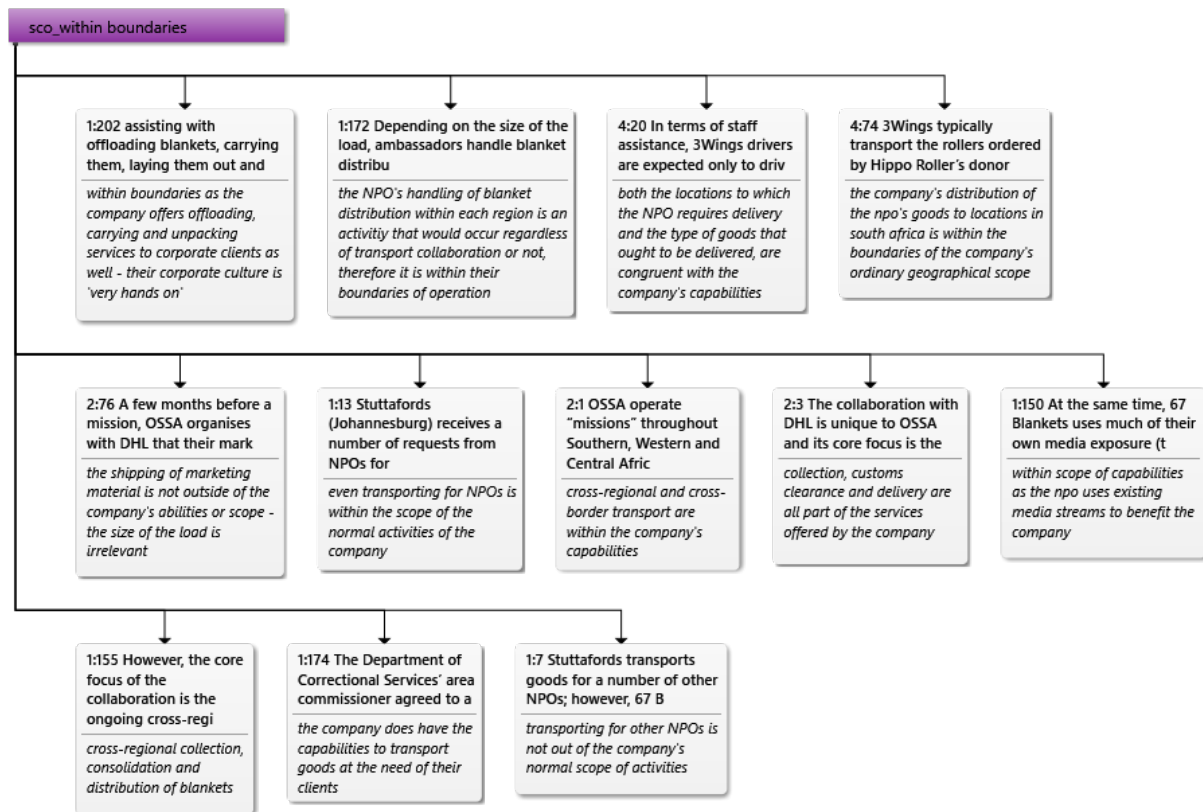


Figure 5-6: Key incidences of activities and geography within the boundaries of ordinary practice

The services offered by transport companies ranges from company to company. Some examples of services offered by companies to clientele as well as their humanitarian organisation counterparts include the likes of offloading of goods, carrying, distribution, packing and unpacking services. Where the scope of services offered to clients matches those offered to humanitarian organisations, it is considered “within boundaries”.

It would appear most common for transport companies to have one major CSI programme that involves the provision of transport services to a humanitarian organisation, among other non-transport related programmes. However, there are cases where most (if not all) of a company's CSI programmes are transport related, which would mean that transporting for humanitarian organisations during commercial operations is not out of the company's scope of capabilities.

Similarly, scope is within boundaries when the networking or social activities of the humanitarian organisation, in which the company is involved, are already existing. Such as the

inclusion of the company in existing social events. If the social events to which the companies receive invitation are organised for all stakeholders of the humanitarian organisation, then such events are within the scope of ordinary activities of the humanitarian organisation.

B. Elastic boundaries

Elastic boundaries describe flexibility in the activities offered by either party in the collaboration. These are occasional occurrences where the activities or geographical boundaries of the collaboration are outside of the scope of ordinary practice. Figure 5-7 illustrates key instances of activities and geography demonstrating elasticity of scope among humanitarian organisations and companies in the study.

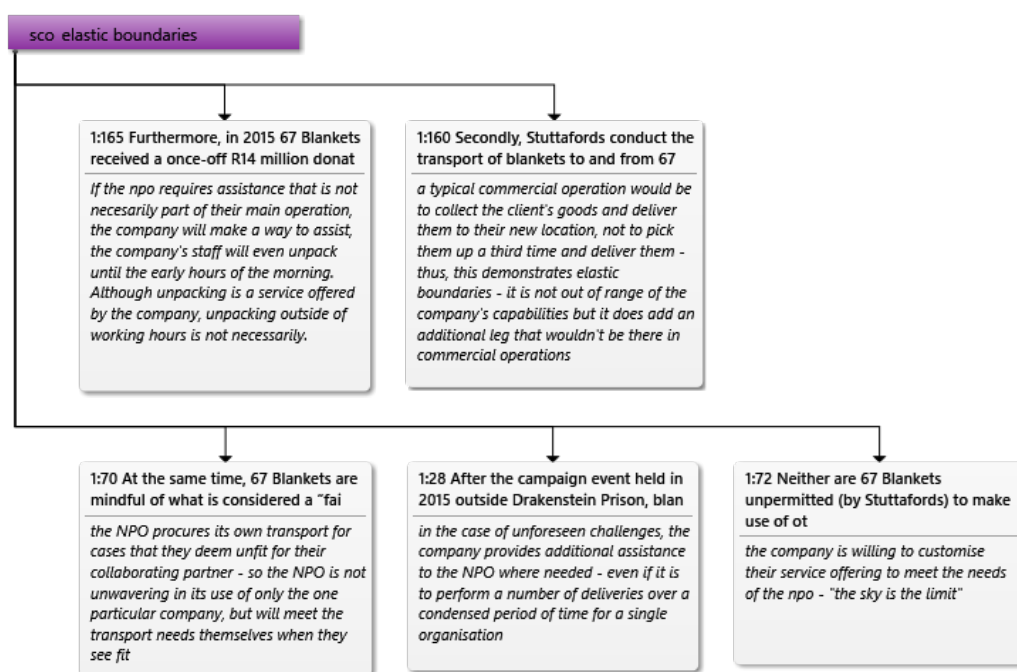


Figure 5-7: Key incidences of activities and geography demonstrating elasticity of scope

Elasticity of scope was demonstrated mostly by the companies in the study. Elasticity is apparent when the transport company occasionally goes the extra mile (sometimes quite literally) for the humanitarian organisation. Any circumstance where the company sends trucks to execute additional legs of transportation that are not part of the original delivery schedule, or where the company's staff work overtime unexpectedly (or willingly), are also examples of elasticity. These were instances most often in response to unforeseen challenges.

Furthermore, where the company demonstrates a readiness to adapt its service offering to better meet the needs of the humanitarian organisation, it is evidence of elasticity of scope. An example from a humanitarian organisation, is when the humanitarian organisation willingly sources alternative means of transportation for incidences that either threaten to be unsafe or logistically challenging for the company. In such instances, transport is not typically an activity

of the humanitarian organisation; however, the humanitarian organisation obliges to better serve the company.

C. Outside of boundaries

Quite simply, when the scope of activities, and/or the geography in which the activities of the collaboration are dissimilar to ordinary practice, they are considered to be outside of the boundaries of ordinary practice. These are the activities that do not typically occur in an ordinary operating environment, or the places that are not typically frequented outside of the collaboration. Figure 5-8 illustrates four key incidences of activities or geographies that fall outside of the scope of ordinary practice.

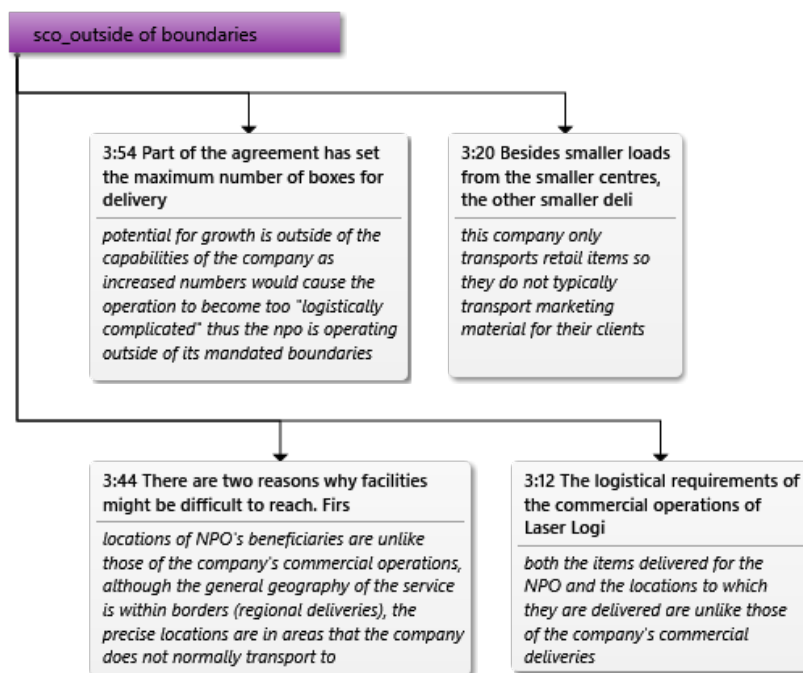


Figure 5-8: Key incidences of activities and geography outside of the boundaries of ordinary practice

Essentially, there are two major incidences when either the scope of activities and/or geographical boundaries of the collaboration fall outside of the scope of ordinary practice. Firstly, when the goods for which the humanitarian organisation requires delivery are unlike the goods typically transported for the company's clients. Many humanitarian organisations require the transport of marketing material in addition to aid; thus, those transporters capable of transporting any type of cargo are able to comply. Whereas, this would fall outside of the scope of other transporters' typical abilities. The second instance is when the locations of the humanitarian organisation's beneficiaries are outside of the geographical scope of the company's clientele locations. In most instances, there is not a need for the company to transport outside of its national boundaries; however, it may be required to transport in areas that fall outside of its typical transport routes, although within national boundaries thereby earning the classification of "outside of scope".

An outlying incidence demonstrating scope outside of ordinary boundaries is the case when the growth of the humanitarian organisation is capped by the company at a certain capacity. This is a demonstration of the humanitarian organisation operating outside of its mandated scope of activity. It could be that the geographical boundaries of the humanitarian organisation are wider than those of its corporate counterpart, or that the level of activity required by the humanitarian organisation is outside of the company's capabilities. Either way, the limitation imposed on the humanitarian organisation keeps its operation at a narrower scope than ordinary.

5.3.3 *Second sphere of analysis: Consideration of impact*

The communication and motivation for collaboration attributes form part of the second sphere of analysis, consideration of impact, as highlighted in Figure 5-9.

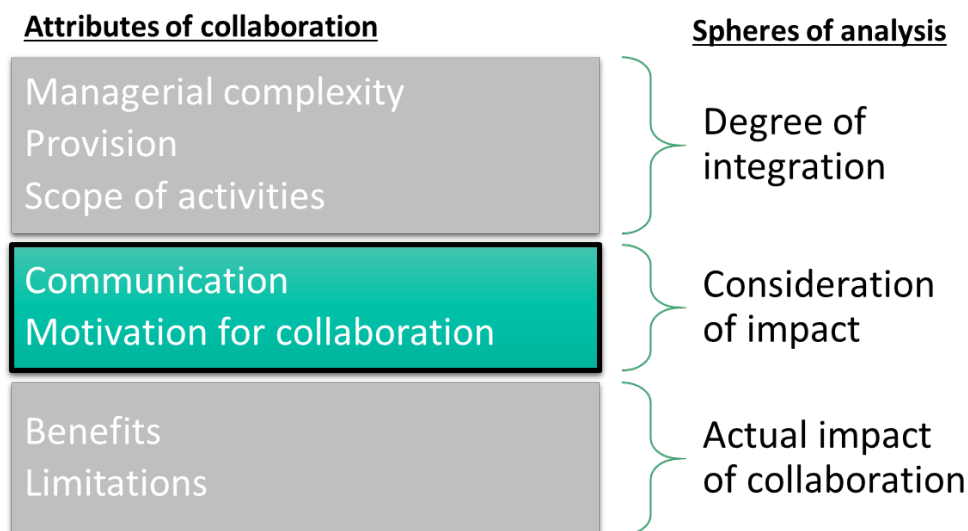


Figure 5-9: Second sphere of analysis: Consideration of impact

The degrees of variation in these two attributes are measured in comparison with ordinary practice in order to reveal to what degree the impact of the collaboration is considered. Revealing the degree of the partners' consideration of the impact of the collaboration will determine how alike the focus of collaboration is to the focus of ordinary practice. In this sense, there should be a deviation from ordinary practice such that the partners consider the impact on one another. That is the company's consideration of the social impact of the humanitarian organisation through the collaboration; and the humanitarian organisation's consideration of the impact on the company through the collaboration. To deviate from ordinary practice in this way is to signify that the collaboration does not function like any other transactional stakeholder relationship, but has a wider focus that transcends merely operational considerations. This would cause the collaboration to exhibit a level of strength.

5.3.3.1 *Communication*

<i>Degrees of variation</i>	Operational Internal, not operational External, not operational
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The various cases of the study revealed three degrees of communication type namely:

- A. Operational
- B. Internal and not operational
- C. External and not operational

Every point of communication between the parties could be classified under one of these degrees. Operational communication is of the type of communication that would be similar to business operations. Therefore, it would reveal little consideration of impact because conversation revolves around the logistical operation at hand instead of the potential impact thereof. Whereas, the subsequent two types (degrees) of communication would begin to reveal a degree of variation from ordinary practice and possibly greater consideration of social and business impacts on the part of both collaborators.

A. Operational communication

Communication is considered operational when it constitutes the sharing of the logistical information required for a typical operation. Figure 5-10 illustrates a summary of all incidences where operational communication was evident.

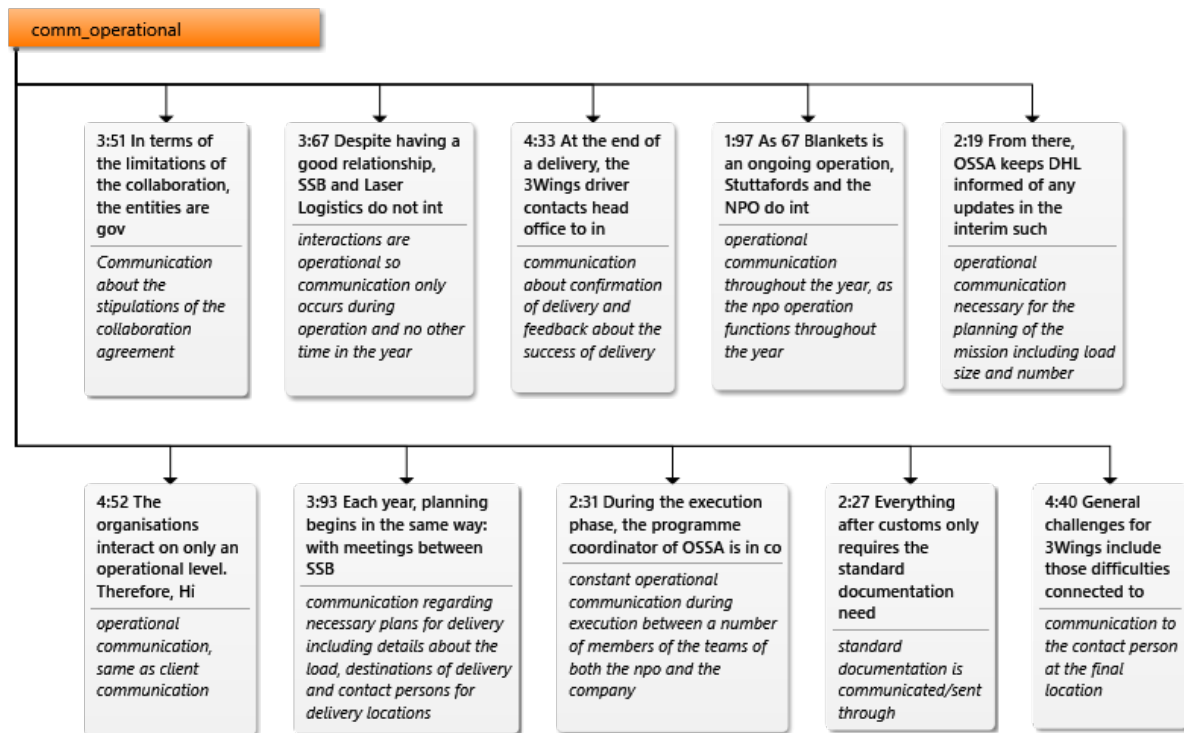


Figure 5-10: Incidences of operational communication

Some of the information considered operational in nature includes the communication of dates, times and locations of delivery; load sizes and other dimensions; the humanitarian organisation's provision of contact details for those receiving deliveries and delivery confirmations. If not directly related to the execution of deliveries, operational communication is related to the planning of transportation for a single delivery or for a whole term of delivery. Alternatively, the parties may communicate on the terms of the collaboration particularly when a formal agreement is in place or is up for discussion.

In terms of the intensity of operational communication, all companies show evidence of constant (or "close") communication during execution. If communication is concentrated in that period, but is very limited during other times, it is an example of a collaboration that is predominantly operational in nature. Whereas, although other collaborations exchange operational communication frequently, they are not necessarily limited to only operational conversations.

The purpose of operational communication was always to ensure the effectiveness and accuracy of delivery to the final destination over a specified period of time. In general, operational communication is fairly constant in frequency across all the cases. There is not anything particularly unique about operational communication in any of the cases either. Many replicate the exchange of standard information and documentation required for a commercial transportation operation.

B. Internal communication that is not operational

Internal communication is the exchange of information between members of the collaborating parties. Essentially, operational communication is assumed to be internal as operational information as such would not need to be communicated to external stakeholders. There are cases, however, where internal communication is not only operational in nature but extends to topics outside of the execution and associated logistics of the collaboration. This is the meaning of “internal communication that is not operational”.

As can be seen immediately in Figure 5-11, internal communication that is not operational is not an occurrence common to all the cases of collaboration. This degree of communication includes the likes of invitations to networking events, conversations about the increase of the social impact of the humanitarian organisation and conversations that take place on non-operational platforms such as management boards.

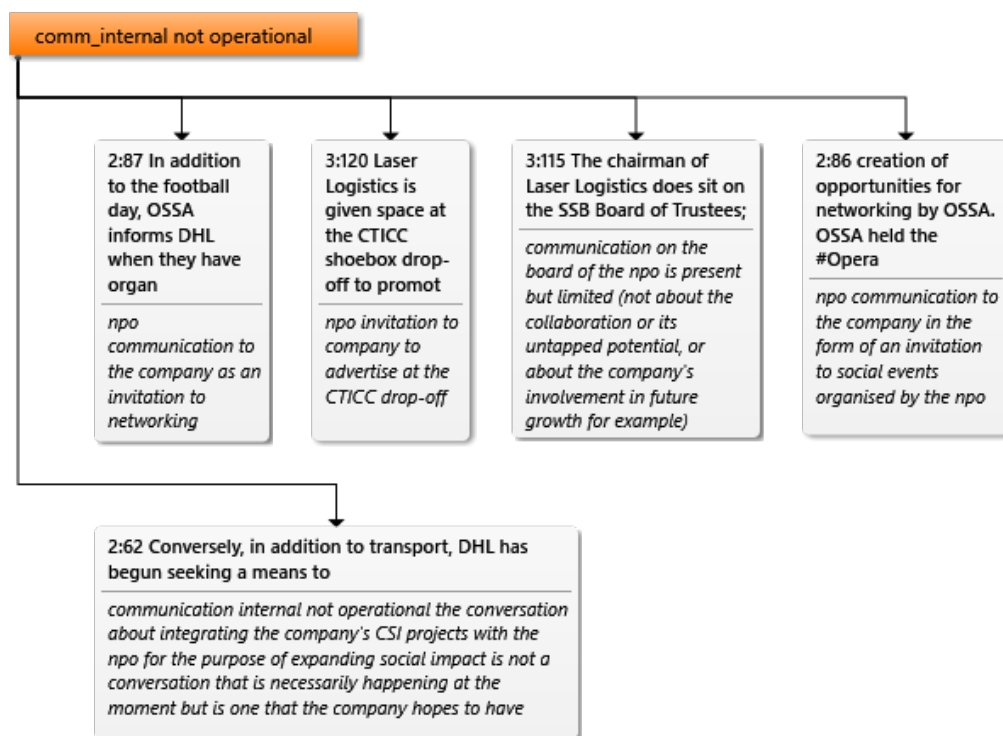


Figure 5-11: Incidences of internal communication that are not operational

When a company has a member on the humanitarian organisation’s management board, there is great potential for participation in conversations that are not strictly operational. However, such conversations are not initiated automatically by nature of the company sitting on the board, but they do require some initiative. Therefore, a company might sit on the board yet not engage in conversations related to their involvement in the collaboration.

Another form of internal communication that is not operational is the invitation to the company to engage in networking or social events held by the humanitarian organisation. If it is not an invitation to a social event, the humanitarian organisation may also invite the company to

participate in promotional opportunities at its drop-off centres should the company so desire. These are examples of the humanitarian organisation's non-operational communication to the company. Examples of non-operational communication to the humanitarian organisation initiated by the company are the conversations relating to the growth of the humanitarian organisation and how the company could possibly further aid the social impact made through the humanitarian organisation's efforts. This, quite clearly, demonstrates a consideration of impact which extends beyond present logistical requirements.

C. External communication that is not operational

External communication that is not operational constitutes information about the collaboration that is not associated with the logistics of the operation, and which is communicated to the stakeholders of the core collaborating partners (including employees, customers, business partners, government, donors and the public). Such communication is most often intended to promote the collaboration and to encourage the positive recognition, acknowledgement or support of the respective collaborating partners. In this way, external communication holds potential to supplement the impact of the collaboration. External communication in the cases of the present study appeared to be directed mainly to office staff, clients and the public as pictured in Figure 5-12.

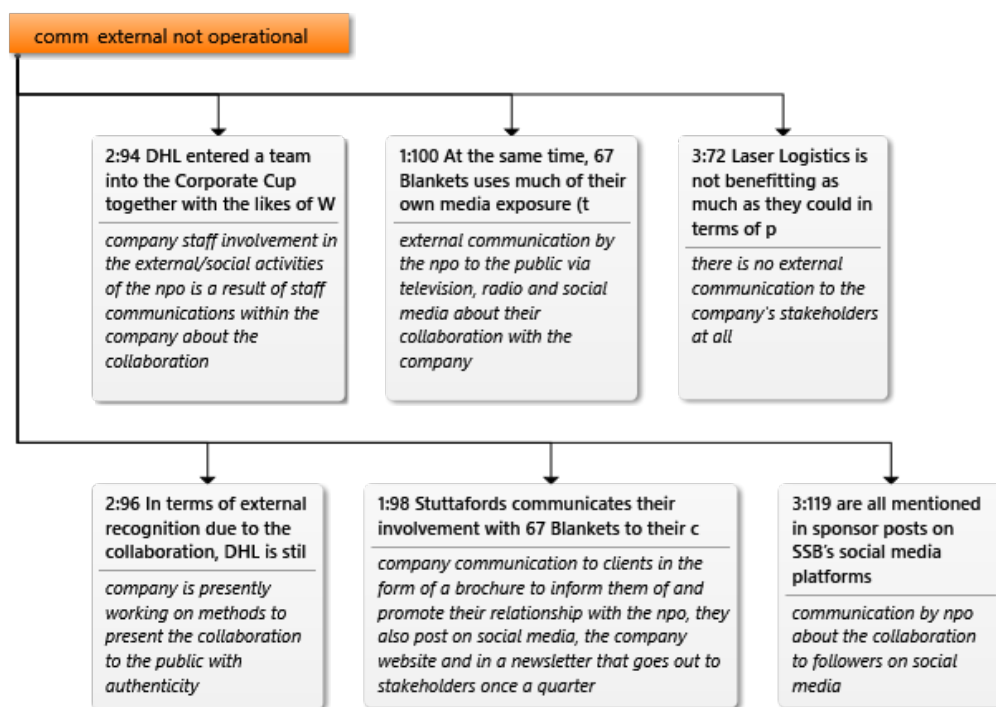


Figure 5-12: Incidences of external communication that are not operational

The platforms of external communication could include newsletters, brochures, social media platforms, television and radio. The purpose of such communication is to bring recognition to the collaboration and acknowledgement to the collaborating partner. Humanitarian

organisations typically bring public acknowledgement to their company partners through social media platforms and television and radio interview opportunities. Such acknowledgement, if it reaches the right people or places, could positively impact the company's public image or even promote future business.

In addition to the public, companies promote the collaboration to clientele and staff members. Clients are made aware of the collaboration through platforms including brochures and the mention of the collaboration on the company's website. Whereas, staff of the company are informed of the collaboration through internal emails and company newsletters. Evidence of staff communication is displayed in the company's mobilisation of staff for humanitarian organisation-hosted events which are external to the logistical operations of the collaboration. There would have to have been some sort of communication to staff to motivate their participation. On the other hand, there are some companies whose stakeholders are mostly unaware of the collaboration with the humanitarian organisation and whose staff are not mobilised by the company to attend humanitarian organisation initiatives.

5.3.3.2 *Motivation for collaboration*

<i>Degrees of variation</i>	Practical fit Organisational values Strategic alignment
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The various cases of the study revealed three degrees of motivation for collaboration, namely:

- A. Practical fit
- B. Organisational values
- C. Strategic alignment

Motivation refers to the underlying reasoning for continued collaboration and consequently reveals whether a consideration of impact is evident in the collaboration. For instance, practical fit reveals little to no consideration of social impact as the only aspect of major concern to the company is that the humanitarian organisation fits within certain logistical prerequisites. Whilst, organisational values and strategic alignment could be those which result in a mutual consideration of impact, although one to a more certain extent than the other. This particular attribute refers mostly to the company in the collaboration because the motivation to continue collaboration does not vary much across humanitarian organisations. The reduction of costs and improvement of social impact are motivating factors for most humanitarian organisations in transport collaborations. However, the motivation of companies to continue collaboration can differ vastly.

A. *Practical fit*

When the humanitarian organisation's 18A certification (see Chapter Two, Section 2.3.2) suits the company's interest in a tax rebate; and when the nature of its transport needs fit the minimum logistical prerequisites of the company, it describes instances of practical fit. This is when the humanitarian organisation is a "practical fit" to the company's preconditions, thereby motivating continued collaboration. Where practical fit is a motivation of the collaboration, the general perspective of the collaboration is predominantly short term. Figure 5-13 illustrates some of the key incidences of this across the cases in the study.

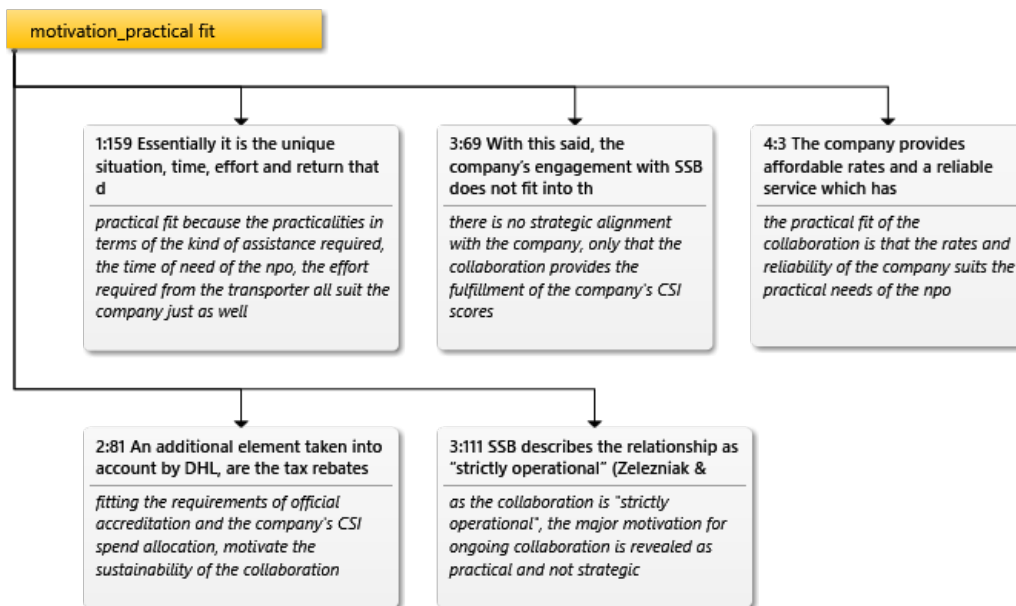


Figure 5-13: Key incidences that reveal the practical fit of the humanitarian organisation to the company as a motivation for continued collaboration

The incidences of practical fit essentially reveal some of the typical "tick-boxes" that companies in transport collaborations with humanitarian organisations might seek to satisfy in a collaboration. For example, if the nature of the transport assistance required by the humanitarian organisation and the humanitarian organisation's delivery-time preferences suit the company then this might encourage continued collaboration. Another major tick-box is if the humanitarian organisation possesses accreditation in the form of an 18A Certificate which would allow the company to receive tax rebates from the partnership. Along the same lines, if the collaboration with the humanitarian organisation is a form of CSI and fulfils the company's BBBEE scores then this, too, can be seen as a major tick-box. On the other hand, a humanitarian organisation might pay the same rates as clients for the transport services of the company; thereby fitting with the prerequisites of service, namely payment. If a company is satisfied with only ticking boxes such as these, it is an indication that not much more motivates the collaboration and that there is no consideration of the wider impact of the collaboration.

B. *Organisational values*

Considering that values are the principles and standards behind a company's service, they are omnipresent. They are exposed in situations or circumstances where there is no obligation yet one party seeks to advantage the other. Organisational values form part of the motivation for collaboration when the company goes beyond what is required of the collaboration for the benefit a humanitarian organisation in some way. Figure 5-14 reveals some of these instances.

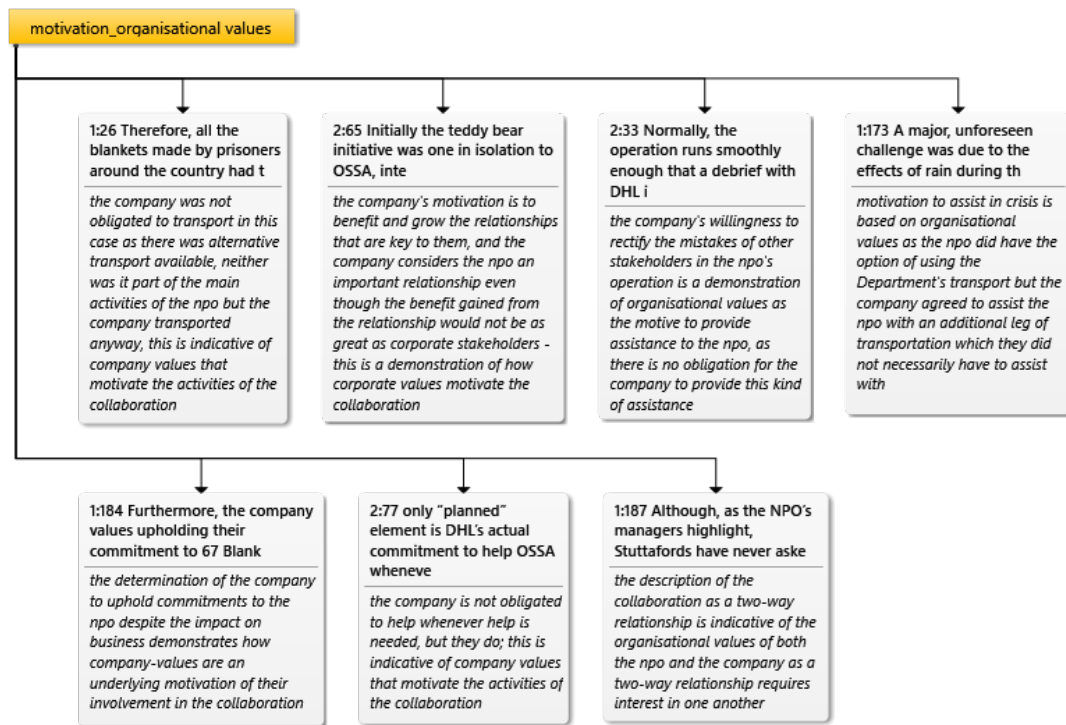


Figure 5-14: Key incidences that reveal organisational values are a motivation for continued collaboration

Some of the non-obligatory manoeuvres of companies in the study that reveal a motivation led by organisational values include incidences when the company chooses to assist the humanitarian organisation in an unforeseen challenge; when the company willingly rectifies logistical errors in the humanitarian organisation's supply chain resulting from other stakeholders; as well as when the standing attitude of the company is to help whenever help is needed, regardless of the type of help needed. Additional evidence of organisational values motivating the collaboration is a company's determination to uphold its commitments to the humanitarian organisation no matter how challenging the unforeseen circumstances or commercial schedule which threaten to disrupt the collaboration. These demonstrate a sort of protective measure of the company over the humanitarian organisation's operation and a consideration of impact.

Furthermore, all aspects that point to the honouring of relationship as an underlying motivation for continued collaboration also bear evidence of organisational values. There are two incidences that demonstrate this. Firstly, the acknowledgement and observation by the parties

that the relationship is indeed two-way, meaning that neither party dominates another. Secondly, when the company's motivation is to benefit and grow the relationship as it is considered a key relationship. Where there are values that result in the parties honouring one another, there you will find a steady supply of fuel to keep a transport collaboration well sustained.

C. *Strategic alignment*

Strategic alignment demonstrates congruency between a company's core competencies and a humanitarian organisation's ongoing transportation needs. Furthermore, there is a demonstration of complementary objectives between the two parties. Unlike, a mere practical fit, strategic alignment speaks of the long-term potential of a collaboration. Figure 5-15 illustrates key incidences of strategic alignment as a motivation for continued collaboration.

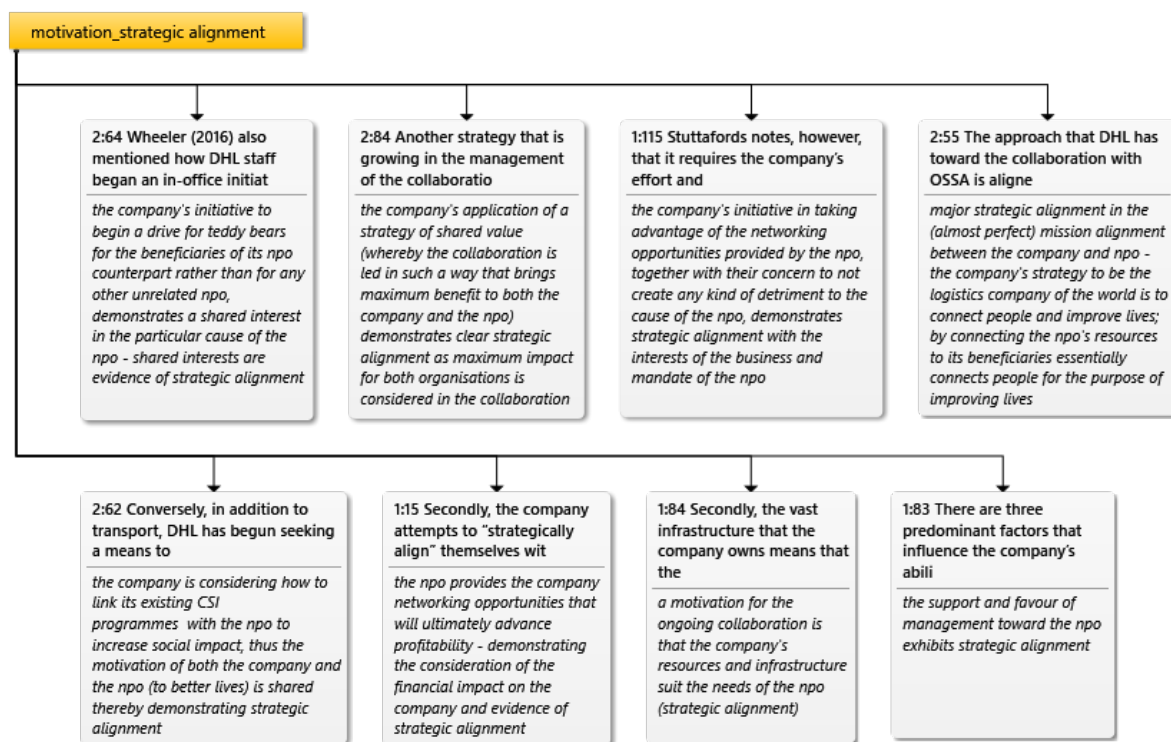


Figure 5-15: Key incidences that reveal strategic alignment as a motivation for continued collaboration

A major feature of strategic alignment is a sense of shared responsibility toward the cause of the humanitarian organisation together with shared responsibility to maximise the benefit of the company. There are instances when the company takes initiative to begin drives or mini-projects that serve to contribute resources to the humanitarian organisation's beneficiaries. Also, companies might seek to connect existing CSI projects with the humanitarian organisation so as to maximise the social impact in community as a whole by nature of the combined inputs of a number of organisations. Additionally, the buy-in of management is an intangible element that demonstrates strategic alignment.

Incidences like these, among many others, make strategic alignment evident in the partners' shared interest to make a difference. There may also be explicit mission alignment where the strategy for the fulfilment of the company's mission coincides with the collaboration. From a different perspective, where the humanitarian organisation invites its company-partner to its existing stakeholder networking events, it shows strategic alignment. The humanitarian organisation has platforms which benefit the company.

Strategic alignment goes beyond the intangible factors as well. It is also the result of linking the company's structure and resources with the humanitarian organisation's structure and resources. This operates as a guarantee of the long-term achievability of the collaboration and thus constitutes a motivation for continued collaboration. Existing infrastructure, large-enough vehicle fleets, skilled teams and flexibility of business operations are all examples of tangibles that promote a long-term link between the company and humanitarian organisation.

5.3.4 *Third sphere of analysis: Actual impact of collaboration*

Figure 5-16 highlights the final sphere of analysis (actual impact of collaboration) which involves the analysis of the benefits and limitations in a collaboration.

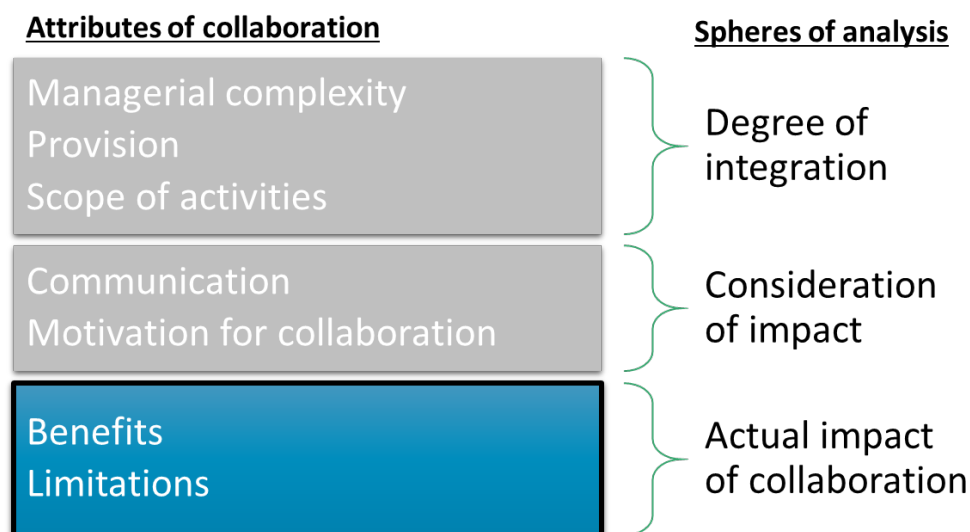


Figure 5-16: Third sphere of analysis: Actual impact of the collaboration

The analysis of the actual impact of the collaboration determines how the degree of integration and consideration of impact have influenced the final outcomes of the collaboration. The actual impact of collaboration is a significant indicator of the level of a collaboration. It reveals the achievement of strategic CSI by the collaboration's impact on both the company and humanitarian organisation. The benefits and limitations of the collaborating parties essentially describe the actual impact of the collaboration. The benefits in question include an improved or expanded social impact facilitated through the collaboration which is a benefit to the humanitarian organisation; and, in addition, stakeholder or competitive benefits which have a

positive financial impact on the company. For a case that demonstrates strategic CSI, benefits should not only outweigh the limitations for any organisation, but should be indicative of maximum impact – an impact which could not be achieved outside of the collaboration. At the same time, limitations should be kept at a minimum.

5.3.4.1 *Humanitarian organisation benefits*

<i>Degrees of variation</i>	Efficiency Sustainability Large scale operations
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The various cases of the study revealed three degrees of humanitarian organisation benefits namely:

- A. Efficiency
- B. Sustainability
- C. Large scale operations

These benefits are what positively influence the social impact of the humanitarian organisation, although the different benefits hold a different weight of influence. The weight of the benefit can be determined by the term and scope of its impact – whether it is a short or long-term impact on a small or far-reaching scale. Collaborations can show evidence of more than one degree of benefit, but the frequency of each type of benefit will determine where the humanitarian organisation benefits most consistently and thus how significant the impact of the collaboration is. The combination of different degrees of benefits essentially reveal the extent to which the humanitarian organisation is better off in the collaboration than if it were left executing its ordinary practice without a collaborating transport partner.

A. Efficiency

The benefit of efficiency constitutes those beneficial outcomes resulting from the company's unique expertise that improves the efficiency of the humanitarian organisation's operation, especially in comparison to alternative interventions or alternative transport providers. Figure 5-17 illustrates incidences of the humanitarian organisations' benefit from efficiency due to the collaboration with a particular transport provider.

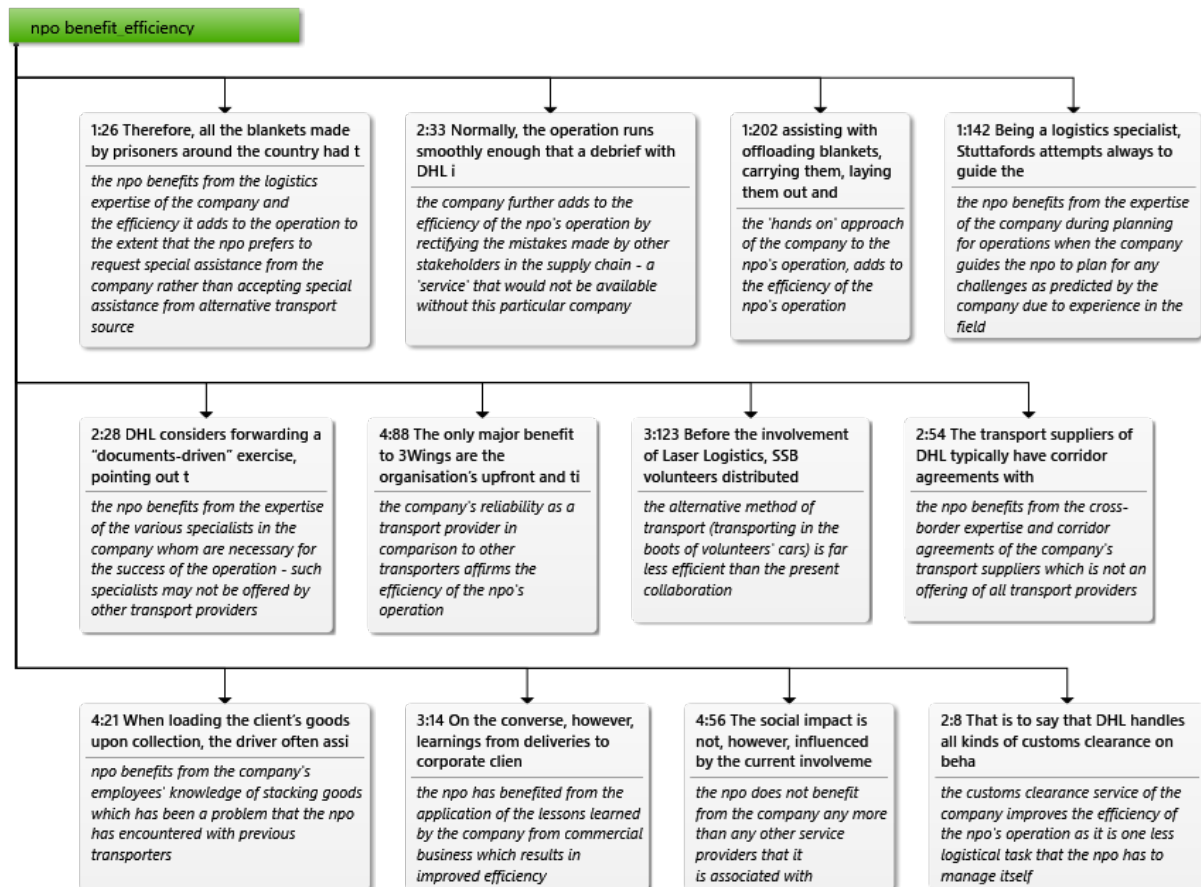


Figure 5-17: Key incidences of the humanitarian organisation's benefit in the form of efficiency of operations

Some ways that the humanitarian organisation benefits from efficiency include:

- Occasions that the company helps to plan for logistical challenges that the humanitarian organisation might not otherwise anticipate
- When the humanitarian organisation ships products of unusual shape, the company applies its stacking expertise to avoid damage
- The "hands on" approach of a company where packing and unpacking services are included in the operation
- The company's assistance in rectifying the errors of other stakeholders in the humanitarian organisation's supply chain
- When the company assists the humanitarian organisation with customs clearing, which is a function with which many humanitarian organisations are not well versed
- The advantage of collaborating with a company that has access to corridor agreements and that is an expert of certain transport corridors on which the humanitarian organisation requires transport
- When the company has a particular team of specialists that ensure each leg of transportation of the humanitarian organisation's goods is successful

- The company's application of business principles to ensure the efficiency of the humanitarian organisation operation

The incidences of efficiency uncovered in the study (and pictured above) were those incidences that were unique to the transport providers. Thus, there was a possibility that should the humanitarian organisation have partnered with a different provider, the same efficiencies might not have been realised. A most explicit evidence of a humanitarian organisation's benefit from efficiency stemming from the company is when the humanitarian organisation has alternative transport options immediately available yet, requests the assistance of its collaborator instead. This shows that the humanitarian organisation considers the transporter most reliable (and most efficient) in comparison to alternative options.

Efficiency as a benefit of collaboration is also apparent when the alternative to transport collaboration would be less efficient. That could be the paid-contracting of a transport provider or the use of personal vehicles. Indeed, every incidence listed above is indicative of the superiority of efficiency from collaboration because none of the listed benefits would be possible with any alternative transport option.

B. Sustainability

'Sustainability' as mentioned here, refers to the maintenance of the existence of present humanitarian organisation operations, including the maintenance of the present rate of growth. Fundamentally, if a humanitarian organisation benefits in the form of sustainability, it suggests the enablement of the humanitarian organisation to continue administering services to its beneficiaries, thereby sustaining the social impact made in communities across the country. Figure 5-18 depicts some key incidences where the company's involvement in the collaboration promotes the sustainability of the humanitarian organisation's operation and its subsequent impact.

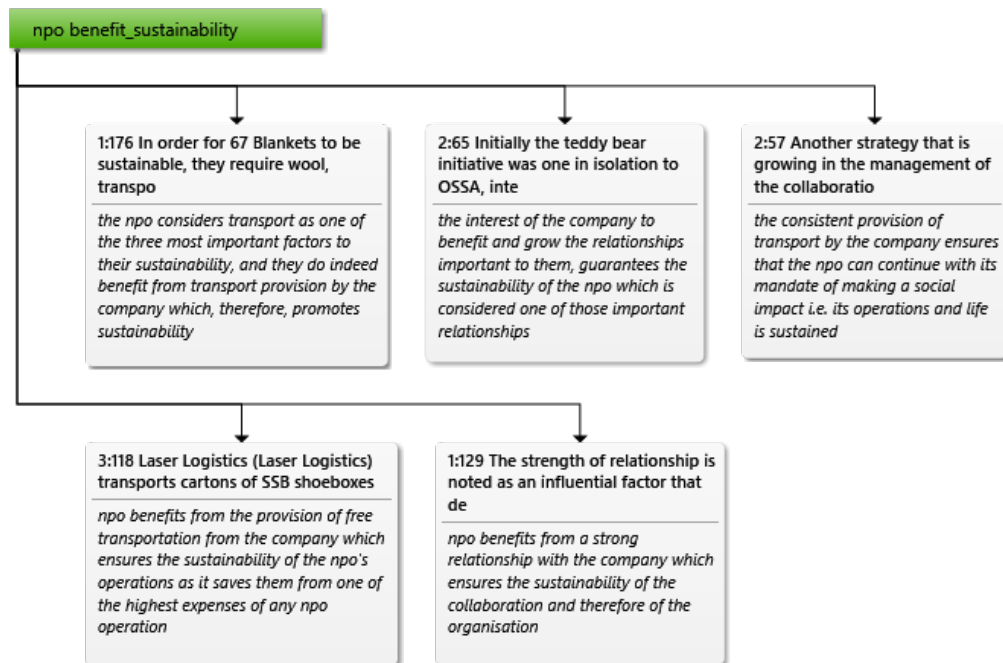


Figure 5-18: Key incidences of the humanitarian organisation's benefit in the form of sustainability of operations

Where transportation is one of the highest expenses of a humanitarian organisation's operation, the provision of transportation free of charge relieves the organisation of an expense that has caused many humanitarian organisations to fail, and thus promotes sustainability. Additionally, collaboration in this way releases a significant amount of funds for the humanitarian organisation to use on other aspects such as additional beneficiary resources or the expansion of the operation. Transportation (as a function) is a major factor that contributes to the sustainability of a number of humanitarian organisations so that if it were not provided, the humanitarian organisation would be unable to operate at all.

A strong relationship between the humanitarian organisation and transport company safeguards sustainability in the sense that the humanitarian organisation would have security that the company would not withdraw its assistance unexpectedly. Moreover, if a company identifies its relationship with the humanitarian organisation as important, there is also an assurance of sustainability as the humanitarian organisation could anticipate the company to act, always, in the best interests of the collaboration.

C. Large scale operations

If the collaboration promotes large scale humanitarian organisation operations, it refers to the company's role in allowing the humanitarian organisation to expand its borders and grow as an organisation. There is every possibility that the social impact of the humanitarian organisation could grow with the scale, if the humanitarian organisation is wise in the formulation of its strategies, general operation and planning. Figure 5-19 highlights evidence

of the growing scale of humanitarian organisation operations due to involvement in a transport collaboration.

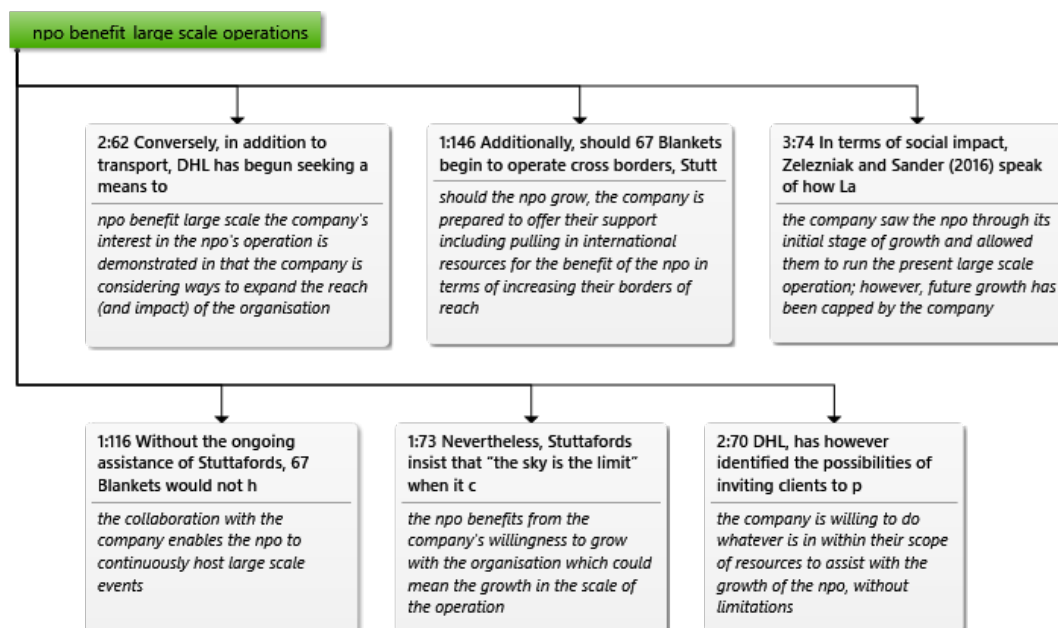


Figure 5-19: Key incidences of the humanitarian organisation's benefit in the form of large scale operations

A company can encourage the growth of a humanitarian organisation in two major ways. Firstly, initiatives to expand the reach and impact of the humanitarian organisation by connecting the humanitarian organisation with other stakeholders that the company is linked to. Secondly, by supporting the growth of the humanitarian organisation. There are a number of means by which the company could do this. If the humanitarian organisation has the potential to expand its reach across borders, and if the company has international contacts it could connect the humanitarian organisation to, it would give the humanitarian organisation a head-start in expansion. If the company typically transports on a national scale, this could mean the expansion of borders for a humanitarian organisation that was previously limited to a single province due to the high costs of expanding nationally. A final means by which the company could support the growth of the humanitarian organisation is through its commitment to grow with the humanitarian organisation, which implies that there are no set limitations to its involvement (other than what is within the company's scope of ability).

5.3.4.2 Company benefits

Degrees of variation	External recognition Stakeholder benefit Competitive benefit
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The various cases of the study revealed three degrees of variation in the benefits of the collaboration for the company including:

- A. External recognition
- B. Stakeholder benefit
- C. Competitive benefit

These potential benefits were also those derived from Trialogue's CSI Positioning Matrix (Figure 2-1). The degree of variation in the benefits for a company really vary based on the impact of these benefits on the company. The impact could be short-lived such as external recognition, or have an impact (and a more substantial impact at that) for a longer term in the case of stakeholder benefit and competitive benefit. Competitive benefit and stakeholder benefit could affect a positive financial impact. Measuring the benefits of the collaboration, together with the later consideration of its limitations, will determine the potential for the company to derive value from the collaboration which could not be obtained outside of the collaboration.

A. External recognition

The incidences of external recognition noted from the study should be regarded as holding the potential for beneficial impact instead of being guaranties of impact. This is because some companies received external recognition from the collaboration but did not attribute any benefit to it, whereas, other companies noted that external recognition was worthwhile. Figure 5-20 illustrates incidences of external recognition with varying degrees of impact.

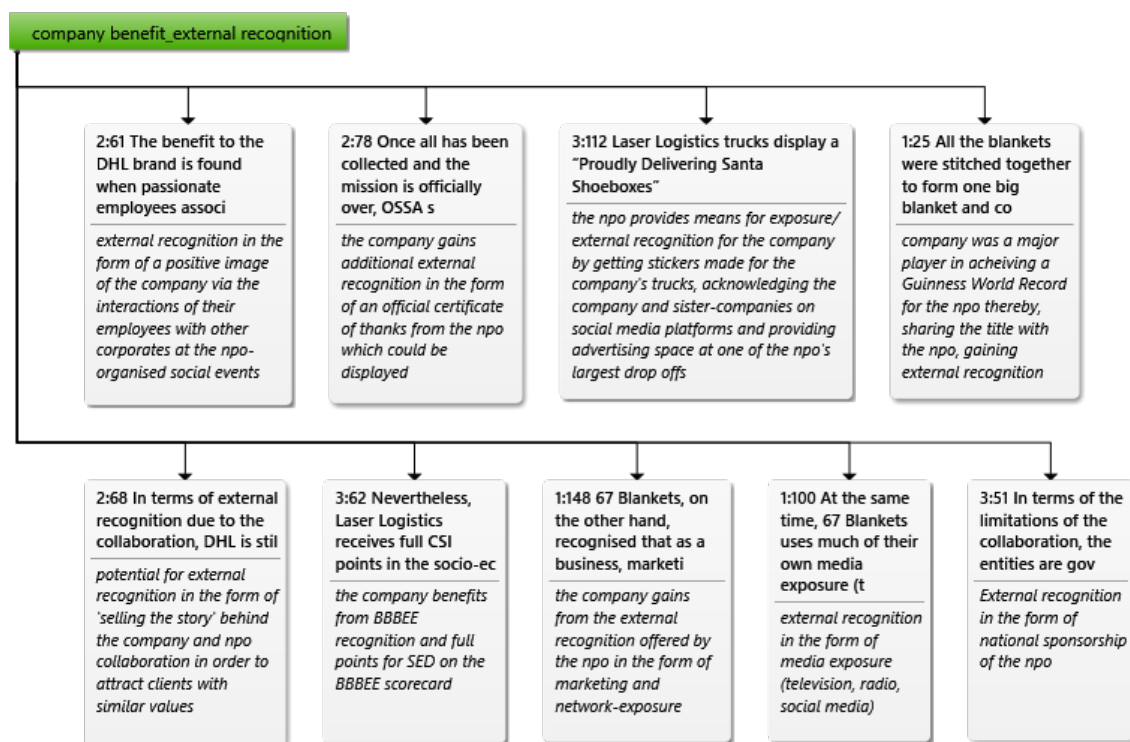


Figure 5-20: Key incidences showing company benefit in the form of external recognition

Some of the most common occurrences of external recognition, which are also illustrated in the network diagram above, include humanitarian organisation-printed stickers for the

company's trucks acknowledging the company's affiliation with the humanitarian organisation; the humanitarian organisation's acknowledgement of the company on social media platforms, radio and television; and the recognition associated with being the national sponsor of the humanitarian organisation. These examples assist in building a positive brand image of the company. A company's receipt of BBBEE points for the collaboration is another form of external recognition which maintains the company's favourable reputation in the marketplace.

Some humanitarian organisations invite their company counterparts, along with the organisation's other stakeholders, to networking events. Here, the companies gain exposure to new networks which might not have been within reach previously. Also, where the company sends representatives to the networking events, who are also strong advocates of the collaboration with the humanitarian organisation, it builds a positive image of the company amongst potential business partners.

The collaboration also provides the company with a lever to gain business from like-minded clientele with clever marketing campaigns that expose the nature of the relationship between the company and the humanitarian organisation. Other outlying examples of external recognition could be when the company plays a major role in a humanitarian organisation event that has a lot of international exposure, or when the humanitarian organisation provides the company with an official certificate of "thanks" which the company could use as evidence of the authenticity and significance of its relationship with the humanitarian organisation.

B. Stakeholder benefit

Stakeholder benefit constitutes that which positively influences the growth, engagement, support or development of employees, customers, suppliers, community or government. These benefits could also hold the potential to influence the profitability of the company. Figure 5-21 illustrates the few incidences of stakeholder benefit in the cases of the study.

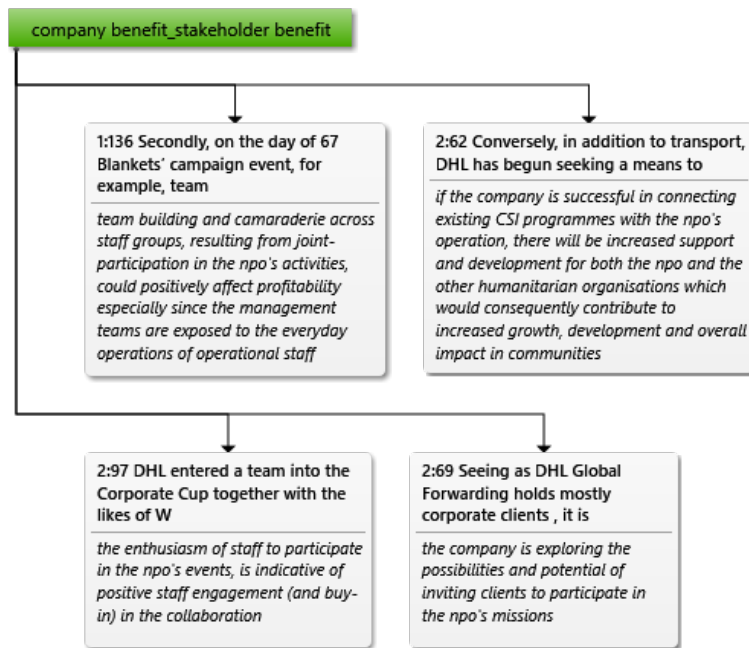


Figure 5-21: Key incidences of stakeholder benefit stemming from the collaboration

When the company mobilises its staff to participate in the humanitarian organisation's activities, many companies report that the team building and camaraderie has had a positive impact on the motivation and productivity of staff members in everyday operations. Another example of stakeholder benefit could stem from a company connecting its existing CSI programmes with the humanitarian organisation which could result in increased support, development and growth for the humanitarian organisation and the other humanitarian organisations. Whether this would have an eventual impact on the company's profitability depends on the nature of the CSI programmes and whether they influence the industry of which the company is a part.

Furthermore, companies could also explore the option of connecting clientele with the humanitarian organisation's operation as well which could result in clientele receiving similar benefits as the company and in the humanitarian organisation benefiting from a greater support network. However, it would depend on the type of transport provider, because if the provider is a freight carrier it is most likely that it would have corporate clients whom already have their own CSI programmes. There is still much opportunity to build collaborations to benefit other stakeholders such as clientele, suppliers and government.

C. Competitive benefit

Competitive benefit is obtained when elements of the collaboration contribute to company performance, cost reduction or revenue increases – anything that aids (or potentially aids) the competitive advantage of the company. The study also revealed incidences of and potential for additional business for the company resulting from the corporate connections of the

humanitarian organisation. Figure 5-22 depicts some of the key incidences of competitive benefit resulting from the collaboration.

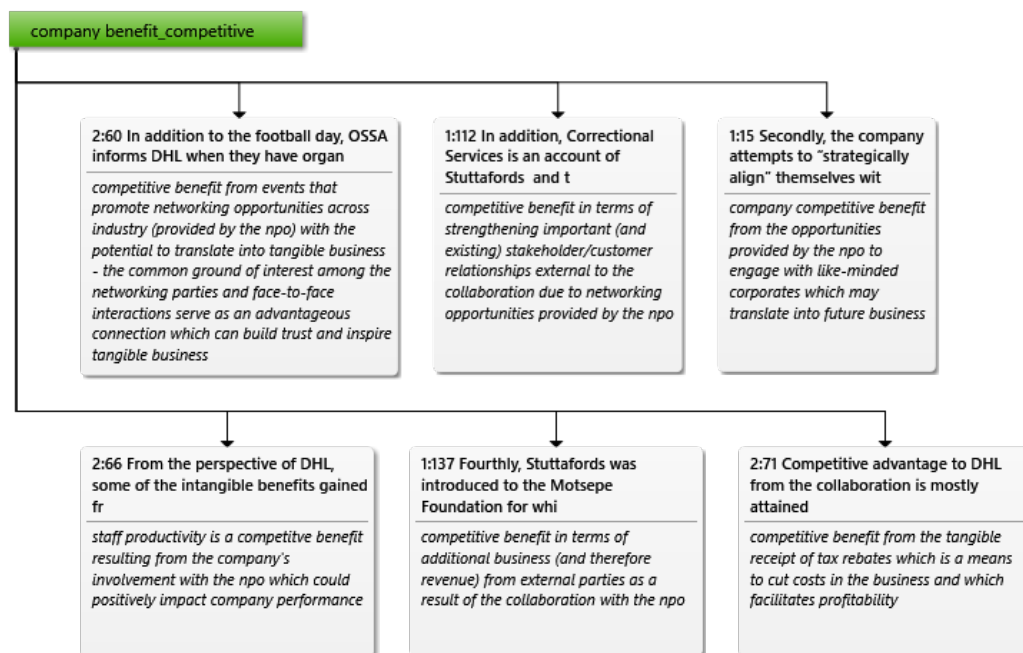


Figure 5-22: Key incidences of companies' competitive benefit from the collaboration

Companies have reported benefit from interactions with other like-minded corporates at humanitarian organisation-organised social events which have the potential of translating into future business. In addition to gaining business from other corporates, the company could gain business from other humanitarian organisations. The company does not have to provide free transportation for every humanitarian organisation that approaches them, as there are those that are willing to pay the fee for a once off service. Should this become a pattern, it would be a sure contributor to revenue increases. Where the networks of the company and humanitarian organisation coincide, there is an opportunity for the company to further strengthen its existing relationships for the benefit of sustained business. In addition to other business opportunities, the company could also receive income by means of tax rebates resulting from its collaboration with an accredited humanitarian organisation. A final competitive benefit to the company is the case of increased productivity among staff members who are inspired to participate in the humanitarian organisation's operations. Naturally, increased productivity has positive repercussions on the finances of the business.

5.3.4.3 Humanitarian organisation limitations

Degrees of variation	Minor Moderate Major
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The various cases of the study revealed three degrees of humanitarian organisation limitations namely:

- A. Minor
- B. Moderate
- C. Major

Limitations are those factors directly related to the company's participation in the collaboration that hinders the humanitarian organisation in some way or form. Hence, they are limitations that would not be encountered if it were not for the collaboration. The various degrees of limitations describe a range of unfavourable impacts on the humanitarian organisation, from inconveniences to the hindrance of the humanitarian organisation's ability to fulfil its mandate.

A. Minor limitations

Minor limitations are those once-off occurrences that create an inconvenience for the humanitarian organisation in some way. Typically, the impact of the limitation on the humanitarian organisation's existing operations is short term (days to weeks). Figure 5-23 illustrates some examples of minor humanitarian organisation limitations.

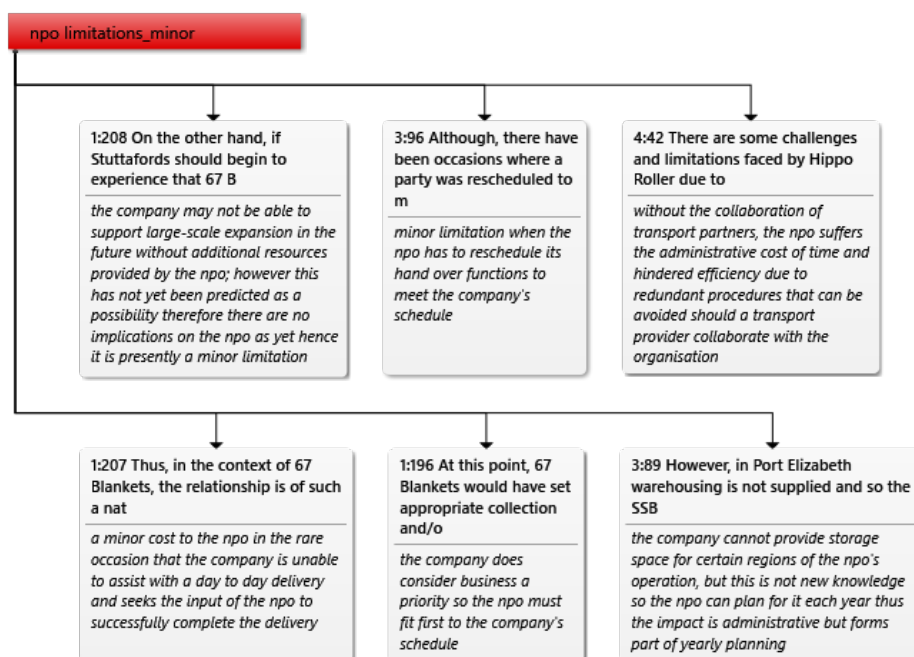


Figure 5-23: Key incidences of minor humanitarian organisation limitations due to the collaboration

The inconveniences of minor limitations are by no means detrimental. For example, there may be occasions that require the company to reschedule its deliveries for the humanitarian organisation, the result of which is the subsequent rescheduling of the humanitarian organisation's hand over functions. Another inconvenience might be if the company provides storage for only certain regions of the humanitarian organisation and not for all of them. The inconvenience is then the administration revolved around sourcing storage or warehousing

from alternative places. This is considered a minor limitation only when such knowledge is foreknown.

Moreover, should there be a particular day when the company cannot successfully complete a delivery without the additional resources or engagement of the humanitarian organisation, then the minor limitation to the humanitarian organisation is also either administratively related or related to the minor expense of some form of provision. For example, it could be that a company requires the humanitarian organisation donors to drop off loads at the company's distribution centre rather than the company making the collection trip. Also, a minor limitation that is quite abstract in nature is the prediction of future limitations. If a company suspects that in the future there may be limitations yet they do not have an impact on the collaboration at present, then the suspicion remains a minor limitation until it becomes a reality.

B. Moderate limitations

Moderate limitations are those that have a medium term (months to a year) impact on the expenses of the humanitarian organisation; or on its effectiveness and efficiency in terms of planning and execution. It could constitute, also, those aspects that reoccur over a number of months or even annually. Furthermore, an accumulation of moderate limitations for a long period of time could lead to major limitations for the organisation. Figure 5-24 illustrates some key incidences of moderate limitations which stem from the company's involvement in the humanitarian organisation's operation.

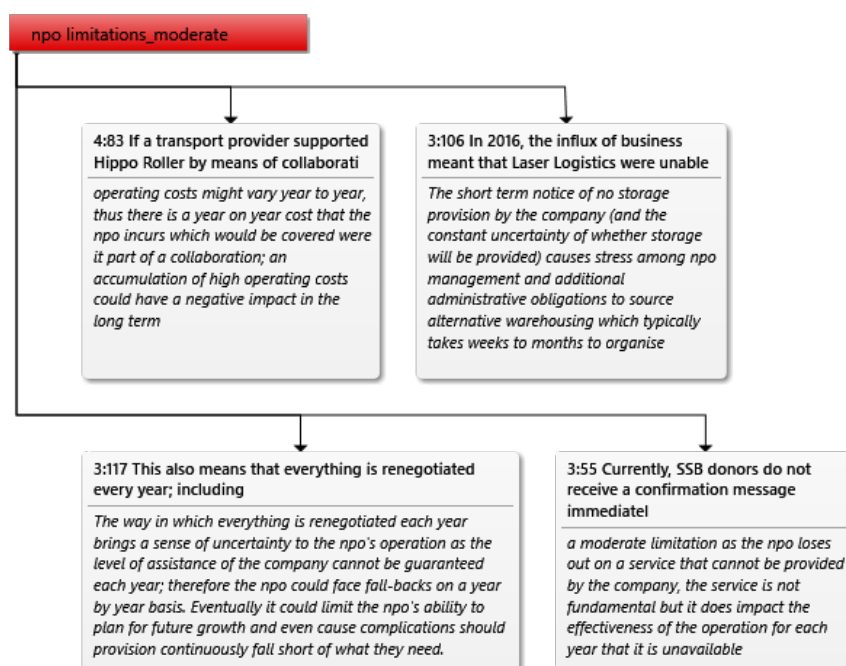


Figure 5-24: Key incidences of moderate humanitarian organisation limitations due to the collaboration

In the case that the humanitarian organisation in a collaboration pays the transport provider for its services, the transport-related operating expenses of the humanitarian organisation

affects the humanitarian organisation's available working capital over the medium term and eventually the long term. The ripple effects of this could expand into a major limitation for the humanitarian organisation if the sustained high operating expenses have the potential to hinder the very impact of the organisation in the communities it serves; and perhaps even hinder the organisation's ability to expand into other communities.

If the company has a pattern of keeping the humanitarian organisation informed (at short notice) of its inability to provide for substantial functions in the operation, such as storage, the humanitarian organisation is put under considerable pressure to find alternate means of filling those functions. This may be due to the company's own uncertainty as to whether it would be able to provide for certain functions in the collaboration. Nonetheless, uncertainty in a collaboration has effects on not just the short term but potentially over weeks or months because of the complex process of making contingency plans.

A final example of a moderate limitation is in the instance that a company cannot provide a particular service, such as informing donors of when their deliveries have been made. This is not a fundamental service of transportation; however, without it, there is an impact on the humanitarian organisation's effectiveness over the term of deliveries. Therefore, there is a trade-off between securing a transport collaboration and accepting the services the transporter can and cannot supply; and the humanitarian organisation managing transportation within its own capacity.

C. Major limitations

Major limitations threaten the sustainability or growth of the humanitarian organisation, or the very ability of the humanitarian organisation to fulfil its mandate – particularly when there are alternative options available. The impact of major limitations is on the long term (one year or more). Figure 5-25 illustrates key incidences that demonstrate major limitations for the humanitarian organisation which are related to the company's involvement. All of the incidences presented in the diagram are not necessarily unique, as some are related to one another, but from different perspectives.

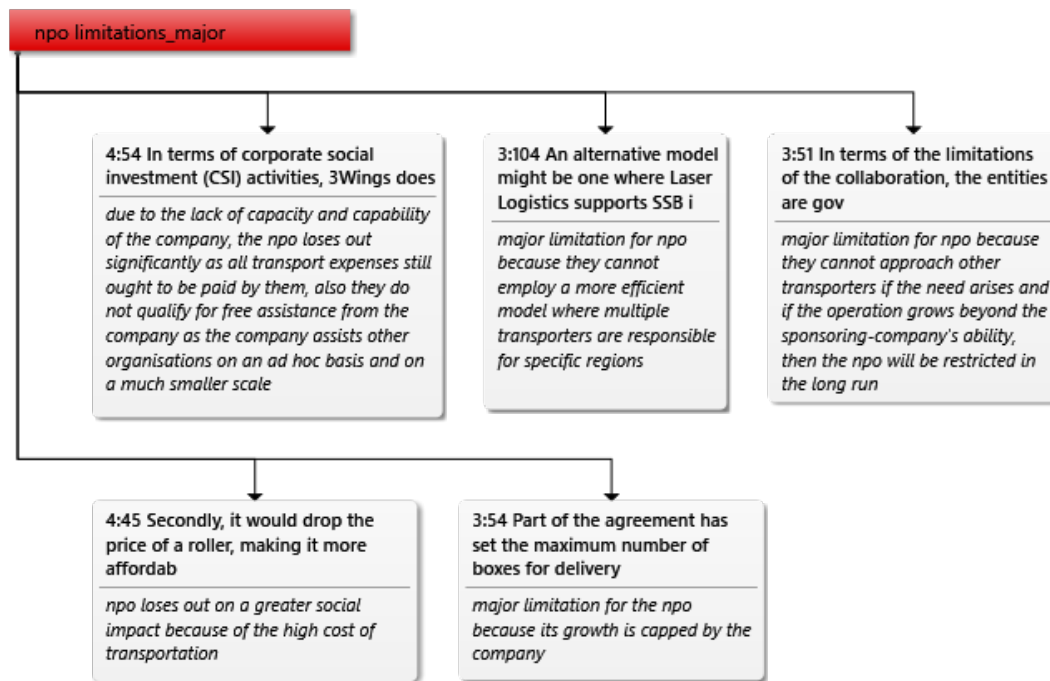


Figure 5-25: Key incidences of major humanitarian organisation limitations due to the collaboration

In the case where the humanitarian organisation in a collaboration pays the transport provider for its services, the transport costs are typically so high to maintain that the repercussions on the humanitarian organisation's final impact in community is substantially limited. The humanitarian organisation would be forced to continue operating within particular borders because expansion, and resulting in increased transport costs, might be too costly for it to be an option.

In the case of transport collaboration that is provided free of charge to the humanitarian organisation, there is also a possibility of major limitations. The study revealed two ways in which this could happen, both are connected to the instance of national sponsorship. Firstly, if the company requested that the collaboration be part of a national sponsorship agreement, the humanitarian organisation is restricted from employing any other transport models that involve other transport providers. This could have a major impact on the humanitarian organisation's effectiveness in fulfilling its mandate if, for example, employing a model whereby transport is provided by various regional partners is more effective than having only one sole provider.

Secondly, it is a major limitation to the humanitarian organisation's growth and effectiveness when the company caps the amount of goods it is willing to transport for the humanitarian organisation according to its own limitations. This would mean that the humanitarian organisation cannot expand its reach. This is a direct impediment to the organisation's mandate, especially if it is part of a national sponsorship where the humanitarian organisation may not procure other transport providers to transport what the company cannot.

5.3.4.4 Company limitations

Degrees of variation	Minor Moderate Major
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The various cases of the study revealed three degrees of limitations on the company namely:

- A. Minor
- B. Moderate
- C. Major

Limitations in this sense are those elements resulting from the collaboration that “steal from” or limit the company’s productivity or which cause disruption in everyday business operations. Similarly to humanitarian organisation limitations, these limitations result in a range of hindering impacts on the company.

A. Minor limitations

Minor limitations affect the company’s day to day delivery schedule and effectiveness as a commercial transport provider. In general, it is the limitations that do not have a detrimental impact on the company’s overall productivity that can be classified as “minor”. Figure 5-26 illustrates some of the key incidences of minor limitations and their subsequent impact on the company.

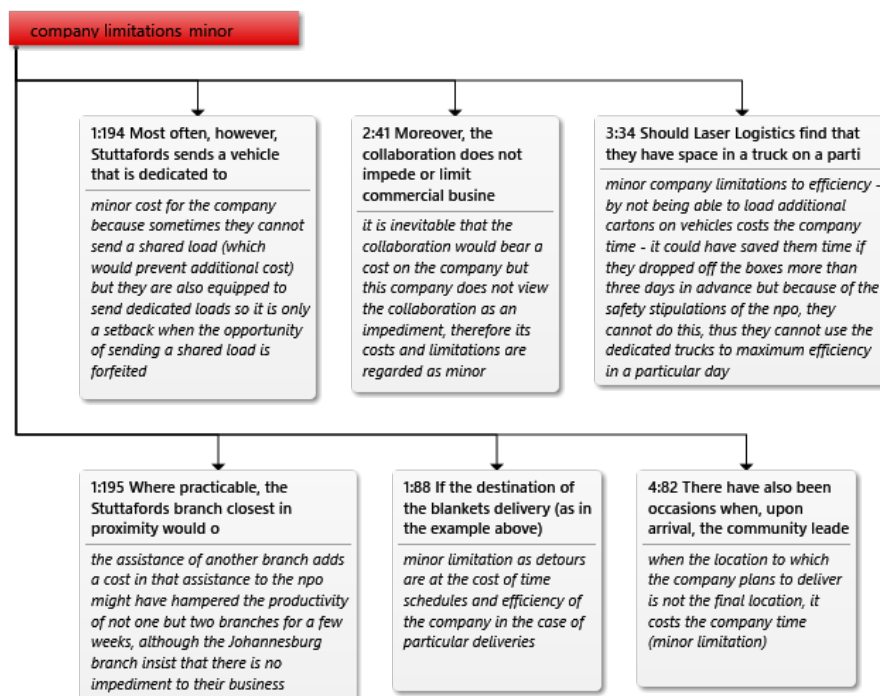


Figure 5-26: Key incidences of minor limitations on the company due to the collaboration

Naturally, a transport provider achieves greatest effectiveness if it is able to make as many deliveries in a day (or particular time period) as possible. However, when the humanitarian

organisation's delivery schedule does not have any flexibility, then the company would not have the opportunity to make more deliveries in a day than might originally have been planned. This does not necessarily hinder effectiveness if it was planned for, but it does prevent the opportunity for greater efficiency. A similar implication occurs when the company is unable to share the humanitarian organisation's loads with commercial loads for reasons which could include differing locations, detour infeasibility or no available space on trucks loaded for commercial trips. If the company is geared to make dedicated trips for the humanitarian organisation, then forfeiting shared loads would not steal from efficiency but only from the opportunity for greater efficiency. Other small inefficiencies include when detours for humanitarian organisation deliveries might set a delivery schedule back or when the locations of humanitarian organisation deliveries are different than those originally planned for.

It is inevitable that any company in a transport collaboration will face limitations in some form. However, when companies experience that the collaboration does not impede on business, it is suggestive that associated limitations are minor. Finally, when a company partners with another branch for purposes related to the collaboration (and the branch pays the related expenses), it is an example of a minor limitation. Although the cumulative impact of inter-firm cooperation is felt by not only the major collaborating partner but by both firms, it remains a minor limitation. This is true only if it is a once-off arrangement because any implications of the arrangement would be short term; whereas, if it was an ongoing agreement, the impact might have longer term repercussions.

B. Moderate limitations

Moderate limitations constitute the incidences that have a hindering impact on the company's existing operation for the medium term (months to a year). Figure 5-27 pictures key incidences that companies encountered moderate limitations owing to the collaboration.

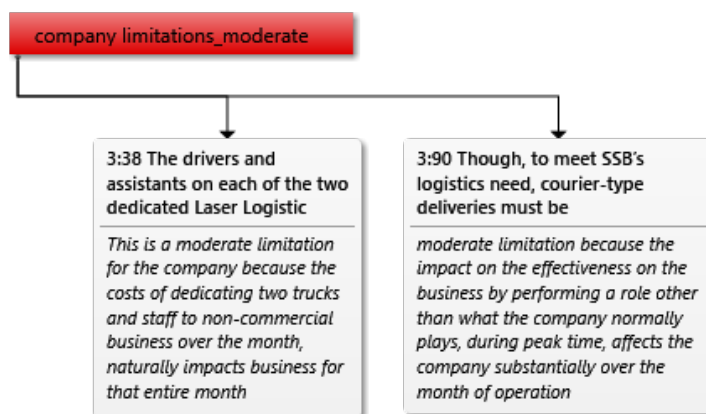


Figure 5-27: Key incidences of moderate limitations on the company due to the collaboration

Moderate limitations might occur when the company allocates a dedicated team and vehicles from commercial operations to the humanitarian organisation's operations for a period of a

month or more. It is a moderate limitation as it might create setbacks for the company's business over that period of time. Furthermore, if the company provides full-time assistance like this to the humanitarian organisation over its peak business periods, it is highly likely to have a repercussion on business operations. The company either loses staff and vehicles that could serve commercial operations, or it has to procure additional vehicles and staff which is an additional cost. As peak business typically lasts over a period of months, the limitation on business as caused by the collaboration can be considered a moderate limitation.

C. Major limitations

Major limitations have an adverse effect on the company over the long term (more than a year). They are also those factors that pose the risk of substantial (or detrimental) impediment to the company's everyday business. Figure 5-28 pictures incidences of major limitations to the company and examples of the associated risks.

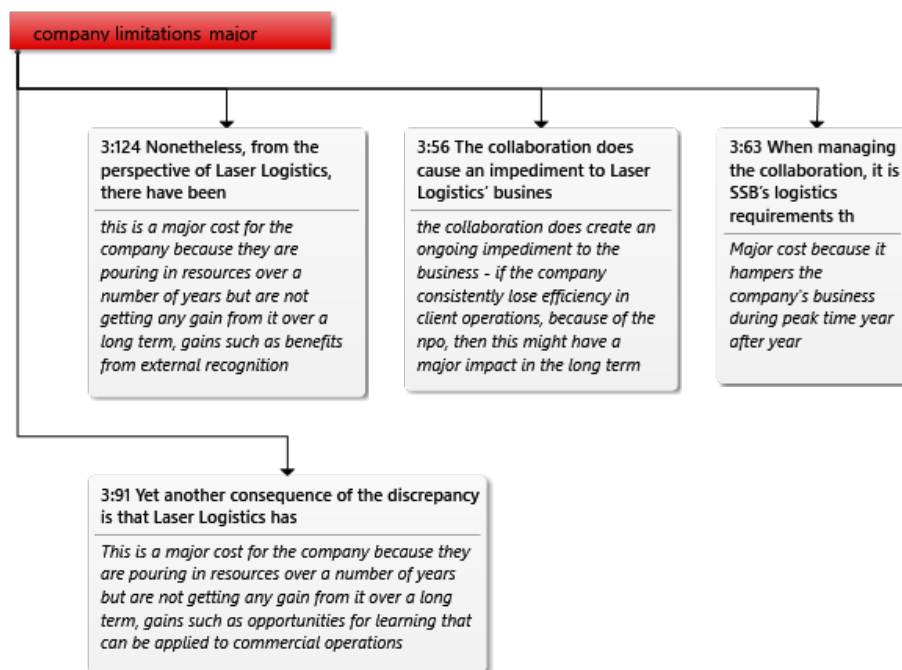


Figure 5-28: Key incidences of major limitations on the company due to the collaboration

Considering that most collaborations are inaugurated with a long-term relationship in mind, if the company does not receive any benefit over the duration of the collaboration it is a major limitation. It would be indicative that the collaboration is a sort of obligation that impedes on business without gain; rather than being a platform for additional value. Also, if the company's commercial response to peak business is consistently inhibited by the collaboration with the humanitarian organisation, it could have long term effects on business. Particularly, if the company's efficiency as a transport provider begins to be questioned by its clientele.

5.4 STRATEGIC CORPORATE SOCIAL INVESTMENT IN TRANSPORT COLLABORATIONS

Any given transport collaboration comprises of a set of attributes that vary in degree. Yet, only a unique composition of attributes would demonstrate a collaboration that is representative of strategic CSI. Accordingly, the collaborations in the study were analysed through the lens of strategic CSI to reveal what combination of attributes would best equip a collaboration for the realisation of strategic CSI. The levels of collaboration are subsequently established in Section 5.5 according to a collaboration's proximity to strategic CSI instead of its degree of integration as suggested in extant literature. In other words, this study considers strategic CSI as the highest level of transport collaboration.

In this section, the collaborations in the study are analysed using the three-sphere analysis tool pictured earlier (Figure 5-1). After the analysis of the three spheres in each case, a summary of how Sphere 1 (degree of integration) and Sphere 2 (consideration of impact) influenced Sphere 3 (actual impact of the collaboration) is presented for each party in the collaborations.

5.4.1 Case A: 67 Blankets and Stuttaford Van Lines

67 Blankets and *Stuttafords* demonstrate how a high degree of integration curbs potentially major limitations in a collaboration. Furthermore, the collaboration shows that a joint consideration of impact lays a foundation for the reaping of mutual benefits. However, without the initiative of the parties, the benefits obtained may be limited.

5.4.1.1 Degree of integration

67 Blankets is relatively well integrated with *Stuttafords'* existing business operations as the collaboration runs smoothly alongside commercial planning and schedules, with little to no conflict. Moreover, there are no incidences of complex management. The same can be said for the humanitarian organisation's operations. The collaboration mostly operates at a standard degree of managerial complexity, with some incidences of cooperative management on behalf of both collaborators. Most representations of cooperative management are either concessions by *Stuttafords* to better meet the needs of *67 Blankets* or efforts by *67 Blankets* to not misuse *Stuttafords*. Ultimately, standard management procedures dominate the collaboration.

Provision in the collaboration takes the form of balanced provision in most incidences. Where provision is significant, on the other hand, it is always on the side of the company. For instance, the company's provision of free transportation, including the absorption of all associated costs, is recorded as significant provision. This would be a form of significant provision across most (if not all) transport collaborations. A unique form of significant provision are the instances

when the company's staff knit blankets to add to the humanitarian organisation's collections. Although the staff provide blankets willingly, it is a form of provision that is not typical of commercial operations. There are few incidences of favourable provision, but by no means do they dominate the collaboration. Hence, balanced provision is the most pertinent degree of provision present in the collaboration.

The scope of activities in this particular collaboration is never outside of the boundaries of ordinary practice, it is mostly within the boundaries and is less often elastic boundaries. Considering that *Stuttafords'* attitude toward the collaboration is that "the sky is the limit", one could expect that there would be occasions that the company operates outside of its ordinary scope of activities (elastic scope). Every so often, the humanitarian organisation procures private transportation for deliveries that it deems unfit for the company to perform due to poor infrastructure. This is the only occasion that the humanitarian organisation's activities are outside of the boundaries of ordinary operation. Despite that, the networking and social events to which *67 Blankets* invites *Stuttafords* were not curated for the company's purposes but were already existing. Hence, other activities of the humanitarian organisation that involve the company are within boundaries. Geographically, the scope is, too, always within the boundaries of ordinary practice on the side of both *Stuttafords* and *67 Blankets*.

The emphasis on standard managerial complexity, balanced provision and a scope of activities within the boundaries of ordinary operation is an indication of a high degree of integration. The incidences where operations were unlike ordinary operations were only occasional or once off events, purposed mostly to aid the collaboration willingly. Therefore, neither the company nor the humanitarian organisation are required to provide more than what they already possess nor are they required to operate outside of present abilities or capacities. Hence, the collaboration demonstrates strong integration.

5.4.1.2 *Consideration of impact*

Operational communication plays a dominant role in the collaboration, as it is logistically intensive. However, there are exchanges between the parties that are unrelated to logistics, although the scope of these exchanges is quite narrow. The invitations to networking events and opportunities by the humanitarian organisation to *Stuttafords'* are essentially the sum total of this sort of communication. External communication about the collaboration by the company goes out to staff members and clientele fairly regularly. Whilst, *67 Blankets* acknowledges *Stuttafords* (and therefore the collaboration) to the public through social media, radio and television interviews.

Practical fit as a motivation for continued collaboration is evident in the suitability of the timing of deliveries to beneficiaries, the humanitarian organisation's requirements for assistance and

the level effort required by the company. Nevertheless, it is organisational values and strategic alignment that seem to be the strongest drivers that motivate collaboration. The match between *Stuttafords'* core competencies and *67 Blankets'* transport needs is an excellent one which would deem strong strategic alignment. However, the demonstration of complementary objectives is not as strong. *Stuttafords'* organisational values are highlighted in the company's willingness to do whatever it takes to assist the humanitarian organisation no matter the cost; however, this has not translated into actual goals aimed at achieving a maximised social impact. Thus, there is indeed shared interest in the mandates of either party, but there are no apparent shared objectives.

Although the motivation for collaboration reveals a shared interest in the causes of either party, communication does not reveal a mutual interest in the eventual impact of the collaboration. *67 Blankets* does show a mindfulness of the impact on the company, which is evident in the inclusion of the company in networking events. However, communication reveals that *Stuttafords* has not considered much its role in influencing the social impact of the humanitarian organisation.

5.4.1.3 *Actual impact of collaboration on Stuttaford Van Lines*

The benefits of the collaboration to the company far outweigh the limitations. *Stuttafords* does not encounter any major or moderate limitations due to the collaboration. Only minor limitations are experienced which impact administration or cause occasional deterrence in commercial schedules. It is inevitable that the collaboration would bear a substantial financial cost on *Stuttafords*. However, the company does not view the collaboration as an impediment at all (financially or in terms of productivity) due to its flexibility and vast infrastructure.

Nonetheless, the benefits to the company resulting from the collaboration are vaster. The competitive benefits in the form of new business, and the frequent networking opportunities with potential clients, would not have been obtained without *67 Blankets'* doing. In the same way, the external recognition gained from the humanitarian organisation's endeavours are, many times, in channels that *Stuttafords'* brand does not regularly frequent. Such as television and radio interviews, as well as recognition through the humanitarian organisation's 2014 Guinness World Record. The stakeholder benefits from the collaboration are experienced through team building and camaraderie across staff groups (and departments) when working together on *67 Blankets* initiatives. Thus, there is a clear promotion of staff engagement and development. Although, these occur mostly during the humanitarian organisation's blanket drives and over the period of its annual campaign event and not necessarily the times in between.

The influence of a high degree of integration is evident in the limitations of the collaboration being kept to a minor degree. Evidently, limitations as such could just as well be encountered during commercial operations which is further validation of decent integration. There is evidence of joint initiative between the collaborators to promote benefits to the company. *67 Blankets* creates opportunities for business benefit for *Stuttafords* and at the same time, *Stuttafords* takes initiative to grab hold of these opportunities. The humanitarian organisation's consideration of the company's interests comes through in the competitive benefits and external recognition received by the company due to the humanitarian organisation's efforts. Stakeholder benefits, on the other hand, are evidence of the company's own initiative in drawing from the collaboration for its benefit.

5.4.1.4 *Actual impact of collaboration on 67 Blankets*

Much like its company counterpart, *67 Blankets*' benefits from the collaboration are greater than its limitations. The humanitarian organisation experiences only minor limitations with administrative impact. There are no major or even moderate limitations that could hinder *67 Blankets*' ability to fulfil its mandate.

Furthermore, *67 Blankets* benefits from efficiency, the facilitation of large scale operations as well as sustainability. The benefits from efficiency are those which could be expected from collaboration with a transport provider and are evident in the humanitarian organisation's expression of trust in *Stuttafords*. *Stuttafords*' involvement is described as "very hands on" which further explains efficiency benefits. Should *67 Blankets* grow, *Stuttafords* has expressed willingness to grow with the humanitarian organisation; hence the company's "the sky is the limit" approach. The present accommodation of large scale operations and the future potential to expand across borders with the help of *Stuttafords* does not leave much to be desired by *67 Blankets*. In terms of sustainability, *Stuttafords* has a major influence as transportation is expressed as one of the three most important factors of sustainability by the humanitarian organisation. If *Stuttafords* had to withdraw from the collaboration, *67 Blankets* would cease to operate on the scale it presently does and it would not be able to sustain the operation as comfortably as with transportation provision.

A high degree of integration has certainly kept limitations low and has also resulted in benefits for *67 Blankets*. Particularly in the case of *Stuttafords*' wide geographical scope that comfortably covers the locations where *67 Blankets*' beneficiaries are found. Additionally, strategic alignment and organisational values have direct influences on the sustainability of *67 Blankets* and its large-scale operations. However, the strategising for future expansion of social impact lies in the hands of *67 Blankets*; whilst the company plays only a supporting role in the humanitarian organisation's endeavours to do so.

5.4.2 *Case B: Operation Smile South Africa and DHL Global Forwarding*

OSSA and DHL show a high degree of integration and a shared consideration of impact that translates into a collaboration with vast benefits and minimal limitations. A consideration of impact is evident from both collaborators, where DHL's consideration of impact comes through in both communication as well as its motivation for collaboration. It is the combination of all of these elements that contribute to the high ratio of benefits to limitations in the collaboration.

5.4.2.1 *Degree of integration*

The degree of the collaboration's integration with ordinary business and humanitarian organisation practices is substantial, as either party rarely diverges from ordinary practice for the purpose of the collaboration. Managerial complexity is predominantly standard, with few instances of cooperative management and no evidence of complex management. Some instances of cooperative management, such as the potential development of a customised financing model by DHL, are to improve the efficiency of the collaboration.

The major area of divergence from ordinary practice is in terms of the financial capacity that is set aside by DHL for OSSA. Naturally, the financial commitment to OSSA would not be evident in ordinary practice, but this can be expected from most transport collaborations. Also, the company has initiated office drives for goods to send on OSSA missions, which is, too, considered significant provision. Other than these instances, balanced provision is prominent on both sides of the collaboration, with occasional storage provision counting as the only instance of favourable provision.

A scope of activities that is within the boundaries of ordinary operation is the norm for both parties in the collaboration. DHL has specifically sought not to take control of the OSSA operation, but, have offered assistance to OSSA for whatever might be needed, whenever it ought to be done. This has resulted in the presence of activities with elastic scope. Nonetheless, balanced provision is most prevailing, even in the case of OSSA. The networking events to which the humanitarian organisation invites DHL are hosted for all of the organisation's stakeholders, hence they are within the scope of ordinary activities.

The prevalence of standard managerial complexity, balanced provision and a scope of activities within the boundaries of ordinary operation is an indication of a high degree of integration. The incidences where operations were unlike ordinary operations were only occasional and for the purpose of improved efficiency. Therefore, neither the company nor the humanitarian organisation are required to provide more than what they already possess nor are they required to operate outside of present abilities or capacities.

5.4.2.2 *Consideration of impact*

As could be expected from a logistically-intensive operation, operational communication is proportionally intensive. However, there are also instances of internal and external communication that are not operational. In addition to invitations to networking events, other internal communication unrelated to logistics includes potential conversations about integrating existing DHL CSI programmes with OSSA. This would see the beneficiaries of the programmes also benefiting from the surgeries offered by OSSA. Here is congruency between communication and motivation for collaboration, particularly a motivation driven by strategic alignment.

Among other examples, DHL's interest in connecting its CSI beneficiaries with OSSA essentially impacts only OSSA in the form of expanded social impact. Thereby DHL demonstrates a shared interest in OSSA's objectives. Furthermore, DHL's organisational mission is to be "the logistics company for the world" and their strategy is to connect people and improve their lives. The collaboration is in perfect alignment with this strategy and could, thus, aid DHL in achieving its mission. Shared interest and shared objectives are evidence of strong strategic alignment in this collaboration. Strategic alignment also moves into the alignment of DHL's core competencies and OSSA's transportation needs. Organisational values and the practical fit of the partners also motivate ongoing collaboration, although not to the same extent as strategic alignment.

Communication and motivation reveal shared interest and shared objectives on the part of both parties. Certainly, there is room for growth, but the foundations for this are set (considering the current state of the collaboration). There is evidence of the consideration of social impact on behalf of the company which is expressed through certain topics (and potential topics) of communication. The involvement of the DHL in OSSA's networking events is also evidence of the humanitarian organisation's consideration of the impact on the company's business.

5.4.2.3 *Actual impact of collaboration on DHL Global Forwarding*

DHL witnesses substantially greater benefits than limitations resulting from the collaboration. The only limitations that the company faces are minor limitations. The collaboration does not impede or limit DHL's commercial business productivity. Moreover, the clientele that the company loses out on due to the collaboration are marginal in comparison to the size of its client-base.

The company gains from the collaboration in terms of competitive benefit, stakeholder benefit and external recognition. Competitive benefit is derived from networking opportunities organised by OSSA which involve other corporate representatives. For instance, #Operation45 introduced the company to networks which held the potential to benefit more than just DHL

Global Forwarding, but DHL's other business units as well (like DHL Express, for instance). Additionally, there is an observed difference in staff productivity resulting from staff motivation owing to DHL's incentives for staff involvement in OSSA missions. Furthermore, if DHL is successful in linking the beneficiaries of its CSI programmes with OSSA, the stakeholders that benefit from the collaboration would extend beyond staff to underprivileged individuals in surrounding communities. On the other hand, DHL does not benefit as substantially from external recognition. Most notable is the positive brand image displayed at networking events by DHL employees who are passionate about OSSA. There are limited areas of external recognition for the company's involvement in the collaboration and thus it is something that could still be improved.

The high degree of integration appears to be the leading factor that keeps the company's limitations at a minimum, whilst, the consequent benefits obtained point to a motivation stemming from strategic alignment. Firstly, DHL has integrated OSSA's objectives with its own practices. Secondly, strategic alignment drives the achievement of favourable business and social impacts; and, thirdly it promotes smooth operations, all of which motivate continued collaboration. Although significant, OSSA offers DHL only networking opportunities and it has been DHL's attempts to further integrate OSSA with business practice that has rendered even greater benefits to the company. This integration has proved to be the catalyst for staff development and productivity.

5.4.2.4 Actual impact of collaboration on Operation Smile South Africa

Remarkably, the study recorded no limitations to OSSA resulting from the collaboration with DHL. Alternatively, the limitations are considered sub-minor by the humanitarian organisation to the extent that they were not even worth highlighting during the interview process. OSSA benefits from efficiency, sustainability as an organisation, and the facilitation of large scale operations due to the collaboration.

The particular gains in efficiency are in direct association to DHL's standard business practices. This further points to strategic alignment whereby the abilities of, and services offered by, DHL are a perfect fit for the needs of OSSA. Thus, the humanitarian organisation benefits from efficiency that is derived from the unique strengths of DHL as a company, such as the corridor agreements and logistics specialists associated with the company. Large scale operations are possible with DHL's willingness to do whatever the humanitarian organisation would like, which links back to the company's equal interest in the humanitarian organisation's objectives. Without the involvement of DHL, OSSA's missions would be costlier and consequently more difficult to initiate and sustain. Hence, DHL promotes the sustainability of the organisation.

This collaboration testifies of how a high degree of integration and a constant consideration of impact results in minimal limitations and major benefits. Besides the way in which neither entity adapts its ordinary practice for the purpose of the collaboration, another possible reason for the high degree of benefits obtained by the collaborators (versus limitations) is that of shared value. DHL has explicitly declared a high value in the realisation of shared value in the collaboration with OSSA. This can be clearly perceived in how the company's motivation to make a social impact is translated into action and how communication regarding the expansion of social impact is constantly on the agenda.

5.4.3 Case C: Santa Shoebox Project and Laser Logistics

There are significant complications in the SSB and *Laser Logistics* collaboration resulting in a low degree of integration, consequently leading to major limitations for both parties. Furthermore, with limited consideration of impact, there have been few benefits with the potential of expanding social impact for Santa Shoebox and financial advancement for *Laser Logistics*.

5.4.3.1 Degree of integration

The collaboration with SSB and *Laser Logistics* displays a considerably weak degree of integration, particularly on the side of *Laser Logistics*. Firstly, management of the collaboration is exceedingly complex. Secondly, provision is mostly significant and thirdly, the scope of activities tends to be outside of ordinary boundaries. It would seem that a collaboration is only as strong as its weakest link. Thus, if one party carries greater weight or limitations than another, the collaboration cannot be attributed any measure of strength.

The management of the collaboration becomes complex when the company and/or the humanitarian organisation have to adapt their operations to suit the other party. This occurs in a number of ways in this particular collaboration. A major contributor to complexity is the conflict between SSB's peak need for delivery and *Laser Logistics*' peak time of business. Consequently, there is difficulty integrating SSB's deliveries with commercial schedules which are already saturated. Furthermore, the planning for transport and execution of SSB deliveries hold complications for *Laser Logistics* which are not common to commercial operations. *Laser Logistics* is tasked to operate as a courier for the purposes of SSB, which is completely contrary to ordinary practice. At the same time, the humanitarian organisation adapts its plans for the suitability of *Laser Logistics*. Thus, there is generally poor integration of structures, processes and procedures.

Over and above the significant expenses accrued to the company due to the collaboration, *Laser Logistics* also removes teams and vehicles from commercial operations for at least a

month in order to complete SSB's deliveries. For this to occur during peak season where surplus capacities are small, makes this significant provision. Overall, significant provision by *Laser Logistics* is apparent in human resource provision, physical resources and storage capacity thus covering a wide base.

Where the scope of activities is concerned, the basic functions of a transporter (collection, loading and delivery) are naturally evident in the collaboration. Geographically, SSB reaches beneficiaries all over South Africa – the same scope as the company. However, the transport routes and the specific locations of the beneficiaries within South Africa are all in contradiction to the routes and locations of ordinary business. Additionally, SSB's growth is limited by the company (discussed further on); the implications of which is a limited scope of operation.

5.4.3.2 *Consideration of impact*

The relationship between SSB and *Laser Logistics* has been described as “strictly operational”. Subsequently, operational communication dominates discussion in this particular collaboration. Internal communication that is not operational has the potential to take place on the management board of the humanitarian organisation on which a member of *Laser Logistics* sits. However, discussions about the potential role that *Laser Logistics* could play in the growth of the humanitarian organisation's social impact are not typically discussed. There is some level of consideration of the impact on the company by SSB demonstrated through its external acknowledgement of *Laser Logistics'* involvement on social media platforms. Certainly, there is not a mutual effort in terms of communication whether it is internally or externally which demonstrates very little consideration of impact on the part of both parties.

Laser Logistics' motivation for continued collaboration is limited to only the practical fit of SSB to the company's immediate requirements, despite the conflicts witnessed in the management complexity of the collaboration. Evidence is *Laser Logistics'* opinion that the collaboration with SSB is “just a CSI” and SSB's observation that the relationship is strictly operational. Therefore, taking into account communication and the motivation of the collaboration, there is little to no consideration of the social impact through the humanitarian organisation and business impact on the company.

5.4.3.3 *Actual impact of collaboration on Laser Logistics*

The limitations to *Laser Logistics* that stem from the collaboration outweigh the benefits. There are a variety of limitations faced by the company, many of them major. The major limitations are due to *Laser Logistics* having to assist SSB during its peak business period. The company incurs a greater financial cost than if the operation ran outside of peak business, because new teams must be procured and trucks have to be outsourced in order to manage both peak

business and SSB at the same time. There are also other moderate and minor limitations, but with the presence of major limitations these become insignificant. Taking all into consideration, the collaboration is a clear impediment to *Laser Logistics*' business.

Laser Logistics has a national sponsorship agreement with SSB and the humanitarian organisation offers *Laser Logistics* exposure through social media, truck stickers and a promotional stand at a drop off. However, the only people that members of *Laser Logistics* could interact with at the drop off are SSB volunteers who are not *Laser Logistics*' typical clients. Rather, the company's clientele constitutes various retailers and wholesalers. Ultimately, *Laser Logistics* does not perceive any benefit derivation from the collaboration other than for BBBEE SED points.

The major limitations faced by the company relate directly to the low degree of integration between the parties. As such, the impediment on productivity is largely due to the high complexity of management, the provision of resources which the company does not actually have and the delivery of services outside of the scope of ordinary boundaries. Moreover, it is not surprising that the company does not derive much benefit from the collaboration considering that there is evidence of neither a substantial enough consideration of the impact on the company by SSB nor initiative by the company to take hold of potential opportunities. Accordingly, *Laser Logistics*' view that the collaboration is only a CSI, already restricts any potential exploration of benefits that could be derived from the collaboration.

5.4.3.4 *Actual impact of collaboration on Santa Shoebox Project*

The discrepancy between benefits and limitations for SSB is not as great as that of *Laser Logistics*. There are both notable benefits and limitations owing to the collaboration. There have been significant improvements in efficiency and growth of SSB since entering into the collaboration with *Laser Logistics*. With transport costs down, access to larger vehicles and the expertise of a transport professional, the organisation was able to deliver more boxes to more beneficiaries. However, this growth in scale and improvement in efficiency was experienced only in the first few years of collaboration. Growth, in particular, was later curbed by a sponsorship agreement.

Major limitations to SSB are due to the national sponsorship agreement with *Laser Logistics*. The agreement limits the humanitarian organisation to procure transport from only *Laser Logistics*. Yet, *Laser Logistics* does not have the capacity to meet the needs of SSB which grow as the organisation desires to expand its borders of reach. Had SSB been able to enter into additional collaborations with regional transporters, the weight of complexity would be lifted off of *Laser Logistics*. Instead, the company put a limit on what it is able to transport. This explicitly hinders the growth of the humanitarian organisation and, therefore, the social impact

of the organisation. There are also other minor and moderate limitations associated with the collaboration. Moderate limitations are linked most often to uncertainties that lie within the relationship, such as annual renegotiations with *Laser Logistics* and the company's inability to make timeous predictions as to whether storage will be available. These threaten the existing practices of SSB over longer time periods.

The low degree of integration did not have major effects on SSB itself, as its existing practices were not threatened except for the uncertainties that lurk in the relationship. It is the lack of strategic alignment that explains the limitations faced by both SSB and *Laser Logistics*, and which affect SSB most directly. *Laser Logistics* is a notable transporter commercially; however, SSB's transportation requirements contradict in almost every way with the how *Laser Logistics* does business. Furthermore, the absence of shared interests and objectives does not promote mutual initiative by the entities to aid social and business impacts.

5.4.4 Case D: *Hippo Roller* and *3Wings Logistics*

Hippo Roller and *3Wings* demonstrate a high degree of integration. However, without a consideration of impact, there are no benefits derived from the relationship that cause it to differ from any other relationship between supply chain members. Hence, the social impact through *Hippo Roller* and the impact on the business of *3Wings* remain unaffected by the parties' relationship. Thus, Case D does not really qualify as a transport collaboration but stands to demonstrate the serious limitations faced by a humanitarian organisation resulting from high transportation costs.

5.4.4.1 Degree of integration

The relationship between *Hippo Roller* and *3Wings* is very much a replication of a client-business (transactional) relationship. *3Wings* does not assist *Hippo Roller* as a form of CSI, but as any other transport provider. Hence, much of the management required for the relationship is standard. Incidences of cooperative management and complex management were most often on the part of the humanitarian organisation, due to the complications associated with not being part of a transport collaboration. Having to operate beyond its expertise, *Hippo Roller* considers measures that involve donor cooperation to reduce transport costs. Additional administration is also necessary to find suitable transporters for each new donor. These are complications faced by *Hippo Roller* that would not be evident had the humanitarian organisation been part of a transport collaboration.

As the relationship is transactional, what is provided for operations is balanced with ordinary practice on the side of both *Hippo Roller* and *3Wings*. *3Wings* provides the standard resources (human and physical) to the operation and *Hippo Roller* has no need to provide anything extra.

Financially, *Hippo Roller* pays *3Wings* for its provision; thus, *3Wings* has no need to set a financial allocation for the humanitarian organisation.

The scope of activities is within the boundaries of ordinary operation for *Hippo Roller* – that is, the right goods are delivered to the right places in the right time. Whereas, *3Wings* makes deliveries to rural locations that are within its national boundary, but outside of typical points of delivery. Nonetheless, if *Hippo Roller* is considered no different than any of *3Wings*' other clients, then each point of delivery should be considered within the company's scope of activities even if they are not typical. The transporter would have delivered the goods to those locations regardless of the client paying for the service – humanitarian organisation or other.

The relationship might be well-integrated with *3Wings*' operations because the interactions with *Hippo Roller* are not any different than those with clientele, despite occasional trips outside of its ordinary boundaries of operation. However, there is almost no integration with *Hippo Roller*'s operations, which is evident through the complications experienced by the humanitarian organisation resulting from having to manage the function of transportation itself. Although, because it is a transactional relationship, neither organisation can be condemned for these complications.

5.4.4.2 *Consideration of impact*

The transactional relationship displays how neither additional consideration of the impact on business by the humanitarian organisation nor consideration of social impact by the company are expectations or motivations of the relationship. Communication is solely operational, because the relationship is essentially between a client and service provider. Similarly, the motivation for collaboration is merely practical fit. *Hippo Roller* pays for the transport services; thus, the only consideration of *3Wings* is whether the requested deliveries fit into the company's schedule. Therefore, the considerations between both parties in the relationship are limited to logistical considerations rather than considerations that influence value or impact.

5.4.4.3 *Actual impact of collaboration on 3Wings Logistics*

There are no benefits to *3Wings* due to its interaction with *Hippo Roller* beyond timeous payments. There are neither exposure, nor stakeholder, nor competitive benefits. The limitations to *3Wings* are also minor. These include only possible time schedule hindrances due to occasions when deliveries are in rural environments and when complications in beneficiary communities are faced.

If *3Wings* faces these limitations during an operation with an organisation considered the same as any other client, then it could be concluded that the company is of the nature that is willing to face any complication regardless of client. Thus, the limitations experienced by *3Wings* in

this relationship should not be considered setbacks directly related to assisting a humanitarian organisation, but as setbacks that could be encountered on any particular delivery. In the same way, the degree of integration does not have any impact or impediment on *3Wings*' existing business because *Hippo Roller* is already a player in ordinary business. Furthermore, the humanitarian organisation's consideration of the impact on the company is not expected to go further than timeous payments. Thus, the overall impact of the relationship on *3Wings* is no different than the impact (whether positive or negative) owing to existing client-relationships and operations.

5.4.4.4 *Actual impact of collaboration on Hippo Roller*

The benefits that *Hippo Roller* experiences from its relationship with *3Wings* are the efficiencies realised from an effective and reliable transport provider. Nevertheless, the efficiencies do not particularly aid the advancement of the organisation's social impact. In the same breath, the limitations faced by *Hippo Roller* are impediments resulting from having only transactional relationships with transport providers instead of collaborations. Indeed, the limitations associated with transportation expenses are major and do impede on the humanitarian organisation's ability to attract donors which sustains its social impact. Moreover, high expenses limit its ability to expand its borders of social impact.

Without a transporter's consideration of social impact, the degree of integration (whether high or low) does not make a difference to *Hippo Roller*'s mandate. It only denies *Hippo Roller* of the benefits that would be ascribed to a company's consideration of supporting the humanitarian organisation's continued and expanded social impact. Hence, the role *3Wings* plays in *Hippo Roller*'s operation does not aid its ability to meet needs in beneficiary communities any better than the humanitarian organisation's other stakeholders. Neither does *3Wings* specifically empower the prospects of organisational and, thus, social impact expansion.

5.4.5 *The attributes of a strategic corporate social investment collaboration*

By considering the collaborations in the study that most closely exemplify strategic CSI (based on the distribution of benefits and limitations) an inference could be made as to what combination of attributes might lead to strategic CSI in a transport collaboration. This is especially clear when contrasting those collaborations with the composition of the collaborations which have limitations that outweigh benefits.

Accordingly, Case A (*67 Blankets* and *Stuttafords*) and Case B (*OSSA* and *DHL*) held the greatest benefits together with minor limitations for both the company and humanitarian organisation in the collaboration. Neither case is perfect in its exemplification of strategic CSI,

as each collaboration showed one player stronger in its influence on the high share of benefits to limitations. Nonetheless, should the attributes displayed by the strongest players in each case be combined, it would result in a much stronger and more certain case for strategic CSI in transport collaboration. Table 5-6 summarises the combination of attributes proposed to be found in transport collaborations on a trajectory to achieving strategic CSI. That is to say, Table 5-6 describes the composition of a strategic CSI transport collaboration. In the far-left column of the table, the three spheres of analysis are specified.

Table 5-6: Composition of a strategic CSI transport collaboration

	Attributes of collaboration	Attribute degrees in strategic CSI collaboration	
Degree of integration (Sphere 1)	Managerial complexity	<i>Standard</i>	
	Provision	<i>Balanced</i>	
	Scope of activities	<i>Within boundaries</i>	
Consideration of impact (Sphere 2)	Communication	<i>Internal not operational</i>	<i>External not operational</i>
	Motivation for collaboration	<i>Strategic alignment</i>	
Actual impact (Sphere 3)	Benefits Company benefit Humanitarian organisation benefit	<i>Stakeholder benefit</i> <i>Sustainability</i>	<i>Competitive benefit</i> <i>Large scale operations</i>
	Limitations Company limitations Humanitarian organisation limitations	<i>Minor</i> <i>Minor</i>	

The subsections which follow delve into further detail of how strategic CSI is represented in transport collaboration, based on the empirical findings of Cases A and B, with occasional comparison to Cases C (SSB and *Laser Logistics*) and D (*Hippo Roller* and *3Wings*). The subsections are structured in accordance with the three spheres that make up transport collaboration. Strategic CSI is typically identified by the benefits (and in this study, the limitations as well) of a programme or initiative. Therefore, discussed first is the actual impact on humanitarian organisations and companies in a strategic CSI transport collaboration (Sphere 3).

The discussions of the degree of integration (Sphere 1) and consideration of impact (Sphere 2) which follow make regular reference back to the benefits and limitations described in the first subsection. That is because of how the composition of those two spheres significantly influence the actual impact of the collaboration and, consequently, whether a transport collaboration can be considered strategic CSI or not.

5.4.5.1 Actual impact of a strategic CSI transport collaboration

Strategic CSI is recognised as the point of integration where social and corporate benefits are maximised (Mersham & Skinner, 2008: 241; Trialogue, 2015: 150). Trialogue (2015: 151)

declares competitive benefit and stakeholder benefit as the two highest forms of corporate benefits and in this study, these are maintained as the highest forms of benefit for the company in a transport collaboration; whilst, “beneficial impact” is considered by Trialogue (2015: 151) as the highest form of social benefit. This is where there are notable changes in a community that are beyond the immediate beneficiaries. In this study, however, strategic CSI is regarded as the point of integration where benefits for the company and humanitarian organisation are maximised, and limitations are minimised.

The reason for the reference to humanitarian organisation benefit rather than social benefit as stated in extant literature is that this study refers to collaborations; whereas, extant literature refers to both in-house CSI programmes (those designed and run by the companies themselves), as well as partnerships or collaborations. With regards to an in-house programme, a company interested in strategic CSI is responsible for planning the programme in such a way that brings maximum social benefit to the community it assists, whilst also maximising the benefit to the company itself. Thus, including beneficial impact as the highest form of social benefit in strategic CSI would be important in the case of an in-house initiative because maximised beneficial impact is not the primary mission of a company.

However, the inherent mission of any humanitarian organisation is to maximise the beneficial impact in its beneficiary communities. Therefore, it would be redundant to reference maximum beneficial impact as the highest point of benefit for a humanitarian organisation in collaboration. Rather, a company’s involvement in the collaboration should help the facilitation of beneficial impact made through the humanitarian organisation. Therefore, if the company supports the sustainability (longevity) and growth of a humanitarian organisation which strives to make a beneficial impact in society, then these two aspects (sustainability and growth) should be seen as the highest benefits to a humanitarian organisation in a transport collaboration.

In this study, therefore, sustainability and the facilitation of large scale operations (growth) are regarded the highest benefits of the humanitarian organisation. If the company’s involvement in a collaboration promotes the sustainability of a humanitarian organisation then there is a chance that the beneficial impact on communities would be maximised through continued development efforts. At the same time, if the company’s involvement empowers the expansion of the humanitarian organisation’s borders of influence (large scale operations), there would also be the possibility of a maximised beneficial impact in communities as more and more community needs are met. As for the company in the collaboration, if the humanitarian organisation’s partnership can facilitate stakeholder benefit and competitive benefit then the maximisation of company benefit through a CSI collaboration might be attainable. Thus, when benefits are maximised for both parties, alongside minor limitations, it would be an indication

of strategic CSI. Cases A and B display both maximised benefits and minor limitations for both parties in collaboration, and it is for this reason that they are considered the cases that best exemplify strategic CSI in the study.

It is Case C that reveals the great limitations that could be experienced by parties in a collaboration, despite the apparent success of the operation. All the cartons requiring delivery by SSB are delivered to the right places within the appointed time period; yet, the limitations on future growth are major. At the same time, *Laser Logistics* receives full BBBEE points for SED for their involvement with SSB; yet, the limitations to the business are also major. Although neither party necessarily maximises on benefits, the case still demonstrated the possibility of major limitations set against notable benefits in a transport collaboration. Although there might be substantial benefits for one or both of the parties, major limitations prevent the collaboration from being considered a strategic CSI. A strategic CSI collaboration should not cause a hindrance to any party's mission or ordinary practice.

On the other hand, neither party in Case D faces major limitations to their mission or ordinary practice. At the same time, however, the parties do not realise substantial benefits owing to the collaboration either. *Hippo Roller's* mission is supported by *3Wings*, but it is not enhanced or expanded by the company. Case D may not face the same complexity (or complications) as Case C; but it does not result in the maximised benefits of Cases A and B. Thus, one could say that Case D is an example of a collaboration that operates somewhat in the middle of a complex collaboration (like Case C) and a strategic collaboration (such as Case A and B).

5.4.5.2 Degree of integration in a strategic CSI transport collaboration

The degree of integration in a collaboration is measured by how the management of a collaboration, the level of provision and the scope of activities differ from ordinary practice. In a strategic CSI collaboration, it would appear that they do not differ from ordinary practice. Hence, a strategic CSI collaboration demonstrates a high degree of integration. A high degree of integration is possible with only with strategic alignment; this is discussed in the following section.

Managerial complexity in Cases A and B is standard for both parties in the collaboration, not veering from ordinary structures or procedures. Incidences of cooperative management were only to improve the efficiency of the collaboration. Considering that the humanitarian organisations already benefit from efficiency due to the company's existing expertise, cooperative management is only supplementary and not a requirement for the humanitarian organisations to receive maximum benefits. On the other hand, complex management could only take away from the collaborating partners, which was demonstrated in the collaboration between SSB and *Laser Logistics* (Case C). A major contributor to complex management in

Case C was a lack of strategic alignment where the company's capacities and capabilities did not precisely meet the needs of the humanitarian organisation. Thus, standard management is sufficient for the humanitarian organisation to reap benefits and for the company to maintain minor limitations, on condition that there is strategic alignment between the partners.

Provision and scope of activities is predominantly balanced for both parties of Cases A and B. That is discounting the significant provision of free transportation by the company which is regarded a "prerequisite" of transport collaboration in this context. Provision is favourable mostly on the side of *67 Blankets* (in Case A) which sources promotional stickers for *Stuttafords* trucks. However, of the benefits noted by *Stuttafords*, the most significant are competitive and stakeholder benefits on which the promotional stickers have no perceived influence. Moreover, the external recognition obtained by *Laser Logistics* through promotional opportunities set up by SSB (Case C) was also not reported to bear any measurable benefit. In the same way, DHL (Case B) experiences major stakeholder benefits and competitive benefit which, too, are seemingly unrelated to any promotional efforts by OSSA. Therefore, balanced provision by both parties does not deduct in any way from the significant benefits that can be obtained in collaboration. If anything, it keeps the limitations of the collaborations low. Furthermore, promotional efforts related to marketing material as such also do not guarantee competitive nor stakeholder benefit to the company, both of which are benefits related to strategic CSI.

Significant provision by the company to the humanitarian organisation in the form of blankets and teddy bears (as in Cases A and B respectively) is, however, one means of provision that can promote stakeholder benefit to the company whilst, at the same time, adding value to the humanitarian organisation. The camaraderie associated with working together for a greater cause has an influence on productivity and on staff growth and development. Such provision is also not at a disadvantage to the company as the employees willingly supply their own resources to the initiatives, thereby keeping limitations minor. Nonetheless, balanced provision is the minimum requirement for strategic CSI. Indeed, the provision of free transportation is already a major contributor to the sustainability of humanitarian organisations. Without this, humanitarian organisations' operations are costlier and, therefore, more difficult to sustain. Case D exemplifies the limitations associated with not being a part of a transport collaboration, limitations that threaten the very mandate of the organisation due to high transport costs.

The humanitarian organisations' scope of activities, on the other hand, is a major influence on the competitive benefits of the companies in Cases A and B. In these cases, networking opportunities and events are organised by the humanitarian organisations for all of the organisations' stakeholders. Thus, they are not activities outside of the humanitarian organisations' ordinary scope. It is at these events that the companies converse with like-

minded corporates and potential clients. This is further evidence of strategic alignment where the networks of the humanitarian organisation overlap with those of the company, to the company's benefit. The opposite is true in Case C. Although SSB provides a networking opportunity for *Laser Logistics*, it is not in an environment filled with parties that possess the characteristics of *Laser Logistics*' typical clientele. Hence, it is of no benefit to the company. Ultimately, should the company and humanitarian organisation in a collaboration maintain a scope of activities within their respective ordinary practices, it would be sufficient for strategic CSI; granted that strategic alignment is also present.

Although every fundamental aspect of the collaboration is within the companies' ordinary scope of service offering (including geographical scope), elastic boundaries are evident in Cases A and B. Accordingly, these responses that are occasionally outside of scope are, firstly, due to unforeseen challenges, and secondly, out of a willingness to provide whatever the humanitarian organisation needs, whenever it is needed. There would certainly be a benefit of efficiency in such instances; however, efficiency is already an ongoing benefit owing to the company's professional leadership of the humanitarian organisations' transportation function in each case. Therefore, elastic boundaries definitely add value to the humanitarian organisations' operations but, interestingly, are not directly related to the major benefits received by the humanitarian organisations. This reinforces that activities and services that are within a company's ordinary scope of activities are suitable for strategic CSI, provided that there is also strategic alignment.

What is interesting is that Case D displayed somewhat of the same degree of integration as Cases A and B with the same degrees of Sphere 1 attributes. The case even displayed minor to moderate limitations. However, the benefits of the collaboration are limited to efficiency for the humanitarian organisation, without any collaboration-specific benefits to the company. Thus, without the element of strategic alignment, Case D's collaboration would not be able to extend beyond a client-business relationship. Owing to this, even flexibility in the Sphere 1 attributes of Case D would not have caused it to become a strategic CSI collaboration.

5.4.5.3 *Consideration of impact in a strategic CSI transport collaboration*

The consideration of impact in a collaboration is measured by how the type of communication differs from the types of communication prevalent in the collaborators' ordinary practice. It is also revealed by what influences and motivates continued collaboration between the partners. In a strategic CSI collaboration, communication does differ from ordinary practice in that it is not merely operational. Additionally, the motivation of the collaboration also differs from ordinary practice. Strategic CSI collaborations are motivated by strategic alignment (complementary functions and shared interests and objectives), whereas, in the ordinary

practice of the company and humanitarian organisation, each would be motivated by only their own interests and function. This subsection explains the significance of strategic alignment and of external and internal communication that is not operational.

In terms of the facilitation of large scale operations (the growth of operations) by the company, shared interest certainly motivates it, but it is the tangible elements of strategic alignment that make it possible. For as long as the companies in Cases A and B have the capacities and capabilities to support their humanitarian organisation counterparts, they have expressed a willingness to grow with the humanitarian organisations. Therefore, large scale operations are not dependent on activities with elastic scope or significant provision. They are more dependent on the company's ability to continue operating at a high degree of integration which means standard management complexity, balanced provision and scope of activities within ordinary boundaries. A high degree of integration as such is only possible with strategic alignment – where the capacities and capabilities of the transport provider match the needs of the humanitarian organisation.

DHL's assistance to OSSA (Case B) is regarded as important to the company's mission and there is, too, a shared interest in the humanitarian organisation's cause; all of which is an indication of strategic alignment. Strategic alignment as such, flows over into the communication (internal communication) and planning of the collaboration where DHL's concern to grow the collaboration with OSSA becomes apparent. Internal communication that deals with the possibilities of growth holds greater potential for increased impact for the humanitarian organisation than only operational communication. Moreover, internal communication regarding invitations to networking events hold potential for competitive benefit (as witnessed in Cases A and B) and, too, results from strategic alignment where the humanitarian organisation's activities are advantageous to the company.

The stakeholder benefits obtained by the companies in Cases A and B are largely due to the involvement of employees in the activities of the humanitarian organisations. Employee involvement is mobilised via company communication and, in Case B, by incentives that are designed to encourage employee participation in the humanitarian organisation's mission; consequently, resulting in employee growth and development. Case B further demonstrates that additional external communication by the company, which encourages client or other stakeholder participation in the humanitarian organisation's operation, holds the potential to expand the humanitarian organisation's operation.

Thus, it is the combination of internal communication and external communication which action activities or initiatives that impact the sustainability and growth of the humanitarian organisation, and which advance the competitive advantage and stakeholder benefit of the

company, that lead a collaboration to strategic CSI. Both communication types are required for strategic CSI. These kinds of communication are the evidence of shared interests and objectives.

Essentially, where strategic alignment motivates a collaboration, there will the parties reap significant benefits. Strategic alignment would appear to be at the heart of the combination of attributes that lead to the achievement of the substantial benefits and minor limitations. Figure 5-29 illustrates these key attributes with the centred focus on strategic alignment as the motivation for collaboration. The bolded headings in the figure illustrate the two major features that constitute strategic alignment.

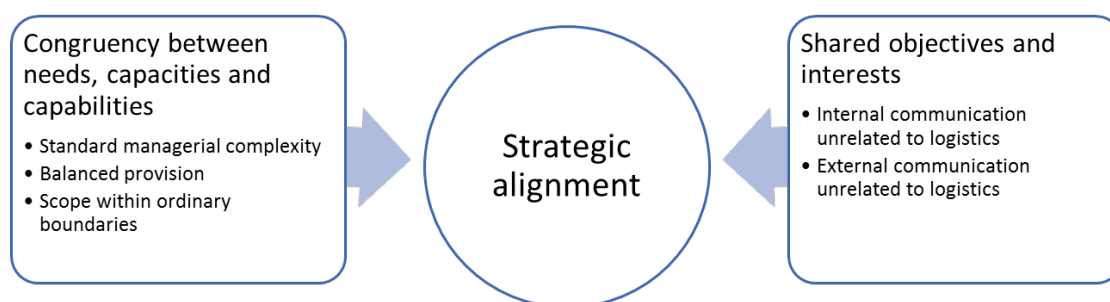


Figure 5-29: Key attributes and degrees for strategic CSI centred on strategic alignment

There are two dominant features of strategic alignment as mentioned earlier in this study and as pictured in Figure 5-29. The first dominant feature of strategic alignment is congruency between humanitarian organisation needs and transporter capacities and capabilities. Should this be a characteristic in a collaboration, there is a promise of a high degree of integration which frees the parties to maintain standard managerial complexity, balanced provision and a scope of activities within ordinary boundaries. Any variation of these degrees should be by the willing movements of the parties to add value to the collaboration.

The second dominant feature of strategic alignment is shared interests and objectives. This should translate into internal communication on matters such as expansion, as well as external communication which leads to the mobilisation of employees by the company and of stakeholders for events by the humanitarian organisation. If all of these attributes and respective degrees are present, the collaboration should experience the minor (and therefore, minimised) limitations and maximised benefits that constitute strategic CSI.

5.5 LEVELS OF COLLABORATION (THE COLLABORATION FRAMEWORK)

Most extant literature considers the levels of collaboration as a continuum where collaborating partners can move from lower levels (or “stages”) of collaboration to higher levels as strategies, decisions and actions are adapted. The stages of collaboration in extant theory typically differ on the basis of the kind and frequency of the support or service provided. Austin (2000: 72)

asserts that the collaboration continuum is not a normative model where one stage of collaboration is better than another because of how each stage represents a different kind of contribution to SED. Although they differ in frequency and type of contribution, each is considered to have a valuable role to play in society. Trialogue (2015: 150) similarly acknowledges that there is a place for all forms of corporate involvement in community.

However, this study differs from extant theory in three ways. Firstly, differentiation of transport collaborations cannot be made on the basis of the kind of service offered or frequency thereof. This is because all corporates in a transport collaboration provide the same kind of service (that is, transport) and, frequencies differ according to the needs of their humanitarian organisation partners. Hence, this study suggests that transport collaborations differ based on different compositions. Secondly, instead of levels or stages of collaboration, this study reveals three types of collaboration compositions labelled “complex”, “cooperative” and “strategic” respectively. Thirdly, it is apparent that one type of composition is indeed better than another due to the share of benefits and limitations associated with each. Table 5-7 presents these findings in the form of a transport collaboration framework.

Table 5-7: Transport collaboration framework

	Type 1 Complex	Type 2 Cooperative	Type 3 Strategic
Degree of integration (Sphere 1)			
Managerial complexity	<i>Complex</i>	<i>Cooperative</i>	<i>Standard</i>
Provision	<i>Significant</i>	<i>Favourable</i>	<i>Balanced</i>
Scope of activities	<i>Outside of boundaries</i>	<i>Elastic boundaries</i>	<i>Within boundaries</i>
Consideration of impact (Sphere 2)			
Communication	<i>Operational</i>	<i>Internal, not operational</i>	<i>External, not operational</i> <i>Internal, not operational</i>
Motivation for collaboration	<i>Practical fit</i>	<i>Organisational values</i>	<i>Strategic alignment</i>
Actual impact (Sphere 3)			
Company benefits	<i>External recognition</i>	<i>External recognition</i>	<i>Stakeholder benefit</i> <i>Competitive benefit</i>
Humanitarian organisation benefits	<i>Efficiency</i>	<i>Efficiency</i> <i>Sustainability</i>	<i>Sustainability</i> <i>Large scale operation</i>
Company limitations	<i>Major</i>	<i>Moderate</i>	<i>Minor</i>
Humanitarian organisation limitations	<i>Major</i>	<i>Moderate</i>	<i>Minor</i>

The framework details the different composition types of transport collaboration and their associated attributes. The framework is compiled on the assumption that transport

collaboration is a form of CSI and thus, involves free transportation to the humanitarian organisation. Type 1 is considered the least favourable type of composition, whilst Type 3 is most favourable. Furthermore, the framework also segments the compositions into the three spheres of analysis as identified earlier in the study. Each composition type was compiled based on the findings and analyses of the cases in the study.

5.5.1 *Type 1 Collaboration: Complex*

A Type 1 transport collaboration has a low degree of integration, and, little consideration of impact, which results in potentially minimum benefits and/or major limitations for one or both parties in the collaboration. Case C would be an example of a Type 1 collaboration.

5.5.1.1 *Degree of integration*

In a complex collaboration, there is little to no integration with ordinary practice for at least one of the parties. The processes, structure and procedures behind collection and delivery in the collaboration differs vastly from either the transporter's ordinary manner of planning and executing transport services, or the humanitarian organisation's ordinary manner of managing transport. Additionally, the physical resources, human resources, capabilities and/or capacities provided by one or both of the parties in collaboration is significant. This implies that the provision comes at a great expense to (at least) one of the parties – an expense that could lend itself to moderate or major limitations to the party. Also, the range of activities performed in a complex collaboration would be out of scope for one or both of the parties. Alternatively, the activities take place either outside of the geographic boundaries of the transport provider's ordinary areas of service, or outside of the humanitarian organisation's geographic preferences. In other words, a humanitarian organisation would not be able to reach the locations it desires to because of a clash with the transport provider's ordinary areas of service. The combination of these attributes contributes to poor integration with ordinary practice for the parties in the collaboration, thereby adding to the collaboration's complexity.

5.5.1.2 *Consideration of impact*

In a complex transport collaboration, the parties have very little concern for the impact of the collaboration beyond the mere logistics of the collaboration. This is revealed in the type of communication between the parties. Communication is predominantly operational with no conversation regarding how the parties could drive the collaboration in such a way that maximises the impact (and benefits) of the collaboration. Also, the only factor that sustains the continuation of the collaboration is the practicality of the collaboration. In other words, there is not much concern over anything else besides the logistical convenience of the collaboration.

Essentially, practical fit implies that the collaboration serves only to meet the most minimum (logistical) requirements of the parties.

5.5.1.3 *Actual impact of collaboration*

Considering that there is a low degree of integration and little to no consideration of impact in a complex collaboration, the maximum benefits that can be attained by the transport company and humanitarian organisation are external recognition and efficiency, respectively. The least that a company could get from the collaboration is the acknowledgement that comes from being associated with a humanitarian organisation. Moreover, the least that a humanitarian organisation can get from a transport collaboration is the efficiency which comes from having a professional transport provider manage their function of transportation. Yet, efficiency would be derived regardless of whether transportation was provided for free (in a collaboration) or not. Although efficiency appears a worthwhile benefit of transport collaboration, it is not necessarily unique to transport collaboration. These kinds of benefits are influenced considerably by the parties' poor consideration of the impact of the collaboration. Furthermore, sustainability of the collaboration is not a guarantee, especially considering that complex collaborations can only grow in complexity and increasing complexity is by no means sustainable. Hence, complex collaborations always pose the threat of eminent disintegration. Thus, humanitarian organisations are only sure to gain benefits related to efficiency in complex collaborations.

Even if one or both collaborators maintained greater than minimum benefits, if the limitations of the collaboration are major for at least one of the parties then it is an indication of complexity in collaboration. Hence, in a complex collaboration there might also be evidence of major limitations, if not merely minimum benefits. Although, with a low degree of integration it would be unlikely that the collaboration holds anything but major limitations. If there is high complexity in managerial complexity, provision and scope of activities then it would be almost impossible not to sustain major limitations.

5.5.2 *Type 2 Collaboration: Cooperative*

A Type 2 transport collaboration differs from a Type 1 (complex) collaboration in its flexibility. That is to say, it might otherwise reflect the attributes of a complex collaboration, if it were not for the partners' willingness to compromise for the sake of the collaboration. Its major difference from a Type 3 (strategic) collaboration then, is that it does not necessarily display the attributes that would allow the collaboration to operate, at what one might call, a "consistent level of compromise". The very fact that there is compromise is indicative that the ordinary practices of the parties are not comfortably complementary as would be in strategic CSI.

A Type 2 collaboration has an inconsistent degree of integration, some consideration of impact which potentially results in benefits greater than what would be available in a client-business relationship. The flexibility in the collaboration is one factor that curbs major limitations from being experienced in the collaboration by one or both parties; thus, one could describe limitations in a cooperative collaboration as moderate. Case D does not display the complexity of Case C, neither does it display the strategic alignment of Case A and B. Therefore, Case D would be an example of a Type 2 collaboration (without the benefit of sustainability).

5.5.2.1 Degree of integration

In a cooperative collaboration, there is some degree of integration due to the flexibility in managerial complexity, provision and scope of activities. The managerial complexity in a cooperative collaboration is appropriately described as cooperative, meaning that although the practices and processes of the parties are not a perfect match, one or both of the parties are willing to make occasional (not permanent) concessions to suit the other's transport needs or requirements. Similarly, provision in the collaboration is favourable, meaning that the partners occasionally provide what they might not ordinarily be able to provide in terms of physical resources, human resources, capacities and/or capabilities. There might be occasions that they provide for their partner what would not normally be provided for their stakeholders in ordinary practice. The scope of activities in a cooperative collaboration is elastic. Accordingly, in a Type 3 collaboration the parties almost never have to compromise in terms of the kind of activities or services offered; or in terms of the locations of delivery. However, in a Type 2 collaboration, there are frequent occasions where one or both of the parties compromise in their scope of activities for the benefit of the other party.

5.5.2.2 Consideration of impact

In a cooperative collaboration, there is some consideration of impact beyond only the logistics of the collaboration, but the motivation is associated more to organisational values than it is to shared interest in objectives. Accordingly, communication may not always be merely operational but the partners might enter into discussion with each other about other factors regarding the collaboration. However, such conversations do not necessarily result in maximised benefits. Rather, such communication is merely indicative that the partners have a relationship that is more than only transactional. External communication that is not operational is not likely in a cooperative collaboration where shared interests and objectives are not an identifying factor of the collaboration. Thus, there is not much that would motivate external communication. However, there is no "rule" to the type of communication in a cooperative collaboration, only to say that the communication is not merely operational, but also not significant enough to affect major benefits to the parties in collaboration.

In a cooperative collaboration, there are occasions where the company assists the humanitarian organisation despite there being no obligation to do so. Where there is no contract obligating special assistance as such, one would have to ask the question what was then motivating the company. Many times, it is attributed to organisational values. A cooperative collaboration is sustained (or motivated) by positive organisational values which are the omnipresent principles and standards behind a company's service (whether to humanitarian organisations or paying clients). This also explains the culture of compromise present in the collaboration. Thus, even paying clients of the transport provider might be treated with the same favour as the humanitarian organisation due to the company's organisational values.

5.5.2.3 *Actual impact of collaboration*

Although there is evidence of compromise in the collaboration, it is still not at a level that could cause substantial benefits to the parties in collaboration. Accordingly, the maximum benefits that can be attained in a cooperative collaboration are external recognition for the company and efficiency and sustainability for the humanitarian organisation. Organisational values might lend to greater sustainability of the collaboration due to the high value that companies in a cooperative collaboration typically place on relationship. Other than that, efficiency is the benefit to any humanitarian organisation that is a recipient of free transportation. A limited consideration of the impact of collaboration prevents greater benefits from being realised for both parties. Hence, company benefits do not frequently go beyond those related to external recognition owing to their relationship with the humanitarian organisation. Due to the high degree of integration, there is neither complexity nor any need for compromise between either party.

5.5.3 *Type 3 Collaboration: Strategic*

A Type 3 transport collaboration has a high degree of integration and a substantial consideration of impact which can result in maximised benefits and minimal (or minor) limitations for the parties in collaboration.

5.5.3.1 *Degree of integration*

In a strategic collaboration, there is high integration with ordinary practice for both parties in collaboration. The processes, structure and procedures behind collection and delivery in the collaboration do not differ at all for both the company and humanitarian organisation; hence, managerial complexity is described as "standard". The needs of the humanitarian organisation suitably fit the transport provider's capabilities. The physical resources, human resources, capabilities and capacities provided in the collaboration are balanced with what would be

provided in an ordinary operation for both the company and humanitarian organisation. Anything that is provided over and above the needs of the humanitarian organisation or requirements of the company should be considered an added-benefit and not necessary to maintain a strategic level of collaboration. Moreover, the range of activities in the collaboration are within the boundaries of ordinary practice for both parties.

5.5.3.2 Consideration of impact

A major characteristic of strategic collaborations is the collaborators' mutual consideration of the impact of the collaboration on the other party. This is mostly due to the strategic alignment present between the partners. There is almost perfect alignment with the company's core competencies and the humanitarian organisation's ongoing transportation needs. There is little need for compromise in such a collaboration because almost every need and requirement is satisfied due to strategic alignment. Moreover, the parties have a clear mutual interest in each other's objectives; together with complementary objectives.

This strategic alignment explains both the high degree of integration in the collaboration, as well as communication that concerns more than just the logistics of the collaboration. Communication in a strategic collaboration is not merely operational and does not occur between only the two parties in collaboration. Due to a sense of shared responsibility toward each other's cause, mission and/or objectives, external and internal communication in a strategic collaboration is purposed and directed at maximising the benefits of the collaboration for the other party. It is also initiated by both parties in the collaboration.

Furthermore, the high degree of integration in a strategic collaboration is only possible with strategic alignment. Where the needs of the humanitarian organisation perfectly fit the capacities and capability of the transporter, then there is no longer a need for either party to adjust its ordinary practice to suit the other. Hence, strategic alignment is the prevalent factor that motivates the sustainability and continuation of transport collaboration.

5.5.3.3 Actual impact of collaboration

A strategic collaboration holds a composition that would enable its partners to achieve strategic CSI. The benefits associated with strategic CSI in a transport collaboration are stakeholder benefit and competitive benefit for the company; and sustainability and large-scale operations for the humanitarian organisation. Throughout this, the limitations for both parties remain minor.

Collaborators' significant consideration of impact in a strategic collaboration leads them to initiate opportunities of great benefit for one another without compromising their ordinary practice or individual missions. The company's stakeholder benefit and competitive benefit is

due to the humanitarian organisation's ordinary practice of offering opportunities for networking and other initiatives which invite the company staff's participation outside of the logistics of the collaboration. Networking opportunities and initiatives as such are evidence of the humanitarian organisation's interest in their stakeholders' objectives (consideration of impact).

Likewise, the humanitarian organisation gains maximised benefits in the form of sustainability and large-scale operations. The strategic alignment in the collaboration safeguards the logistical feasibility of the collaboration in the long term more than any other collaboration composition. Consequently, sustainability is considered a sure benefit of strategic collaboration. Moreover, the company's shared interest in the humanitarian organisation's mission and objectives motivates its initiative and support in the expansion of the organisation's borders, thereby promoting the possibility of large scale operations. Efficiency is an obvious benefit to the humanitarian organisation owing to the company's professional service; hence, it is not considered within the ultimate benefits of a strategic collaboration.

The high degree of integration is the dominant reason for minor limitations in the collaboration. Owing to the partners' compatibility in terms of transport needs and service offering, neither party is obliged to act outside of its ordinary practice to satisfy the requirements and expectations of the collaboration. Therefore, the hindrances to the parties' individual operations are minor if not non-existent.

5.5.4 Progression in the transport collaboration framework

Extant literature's proposed "levels" in a collaboration continuum suggest that there is a path of progression from a lower-level to a higher-level collaboration. However, the types of composition presented above do not suggest a pathway of progression as such. Instead, each type represents a collaboration set on a different trajectory, with a different end in sight. In other words, growth in a complex collaboration will not cause a progression to a strategic collaboration but rather to increasing complexity. This is perfectly demonstrated in Case C.

Based on its attributes, Case C can be described as a Type 1 transport collaboration due to its level of complexity. SSB is growing beyond the capacity of *Laser Logistics* and with it has come a level of logistical complexity that the transporter simply cannot keep up with. During the process of writing up the findings of the study, *Laser Logistics* dissolved its national sponsorship agreement with SSB; thereby, freeing the humanitarian organisation to outsource transport to other transport providers in each region of its operation (also in the form of collaboration). At the same time, *Laser Logistics* is now free to assist the humanitarian organisation within its available capacity. Without this complete change in structure, the collaboration was only getting increasingly complex owing to the growth of the humanitarian

organisation. Hence, growth in a complex collaboration brings only greater complexity. Only a physical change in composition could potentially change the type of transport collaboration.

Similarly, it would be inorganic for a cooperative composition to evolve into a strategic composition, particularly considering that without strategic alignment, there is little chance of the high degree of integration associated with strategic collaborations. This research purposes that strategic alignment is something that is either present at the inauguration of a collaboration or it is not present at all. A cooperative collaboration would then have to do some major restructuring before any hope of achieving strategic CSI. For example, in Case D, the collaboration would need to be restructured to resemble a strategic collaboration before strategic CSI could be realised. Therefore, a simple change in strategy would not be sufficient for a cooperative collaboration to realise strategic CSI. Rather, the attributes of strategic composition ought to be present at the inauguration of a transport collaboration if it is to grow into strategic CSI.

Type 3, the highest level of collaboration, describes the minimum requirements for a strategic collaboration. The degrees of each attribute outlined in Type 3 ought to be most prevalent. Accordingly, with the appropriate strategies and initiatives, a collaboration with a strategic composition could realise strategic CSI. For instance, shared value is one strategy that DHL (Case B) is employing that will further the realisation of strategic CSI in its collaboration with OSSA. Fittingly, Case B's collaboration does have a strategic composition. Moreover, Case B and Case A both represent strategic CSI in some way although at different intensities. This reveals that a strategic composition only sets a collaboration on a trajectory toward strategic CSI, but strategic CSI is maximised only with the initiative of the collaborating partners.

CHAPTER SIX: CONCLUSION, LIMITATIONS & FUTURE RESEARCH

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The main objective of the study was to explore the possibility of, and establish a framework for, strategic CSI through road-transport collaborations between private transport providers and humanitarian organisations. The research took the form of an exploratory multiple-case study, whereby four cases of existing transport collaborations between humanitarian organisations and transport providers were analysed. The secondary research questions (listed below) aimed to break down the phenomena of collaboration in order to reveal its composition, particularly in light of developing a framework for strategic CSI.

- RQ1 What attributes are present in transport collaboration?
- RQ2 How do the attributes vary in different collaborations?
- RQ3 What combination of collaboration attributes are inclined to strategic CSI?
- RQ4 What levels of transport collaboration are present among humanitarian organisations and transport providers?

The research questions represented a logical flow to unpacking the composition of a strategic CSI collaboration through the analysis of the cases in the study. To begin with, the overall attributes of general transport collaboration had to be uncovered (RQ1). However, each attribute looks different in different collaborations; therefore, the second step was to identify the degrees to which the different attributes could vary (RQ2). Thereafter, the combination of attributes (each described by a specific degree) that best reflected a strategic CSI collaboration were investigated (RQ3) in order to, finally, establish what the levels of collaboration are – with strategic CSI represented as the highest level of collaboration (RQ4). With all four research questions answered, a framework for transport collaboration between transport providers and humanitarian organisations could be proposed.

The typical mode of generalisation for case studies is analytic generalisation. The four cases in this study are not intended to represent samples of a population. Therefore, any conclusions and inferences made in this chapter are not about a population on the basis of empirical data collected from a sample of the population. Rather, the cases of collaboration are intended to “shed empirical light” about strategic CSI in transport collaboration (Yin, 2009: 41). In other words, they generalise to the theory of strategic CSI in transport collaboration, not to a population. Since the study used replication logic through the analysis of multiple cases, the generalisation can be considered a conceptual level higher than the cases of collaboration in

the study. In this way, the conclusions and recommendations of the study can be generalised to transport collaborations beyond the settings of collaboration in the cases of the study (Yin, 2009: 41).

The first section of this chapter highlights the conclusions of the study based on the study's findings which are related to each of the research questions. Owing to the complexity of the previous chapter, it was necessary to briefly summarise the findings related to each research question before bringing light to the study's overall conclusions. Many of the study's recommendations are also included in this section because of how they flowed logically from the conclusions. Therefore, the section that follows both summarises the recommendations mentioned previously and introduces new recommendations from the research. Considering that this study is one of the first of this particular topic, the third section details the contribution to knowledge. Thereafter, recommendations for future research (as inspired by the limitations of the study) are suggested. The overarching goal of this chapter is to conclude the study, whilst offering a reflection on the value and significance of the research.

6.2 RESEARCH QUESTIONS: SUMMARY OF FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

The four secondary research questions acted as a guide to understanding the composition of collaboration. Therefore, when the findings associated with each question are considered together, a complete and comprehensive picture of collaboration as a form of strategic CSI is painted. Furthermore, the role of extant literature in contributing to the understanding of transport collaboration was significant. Thus, the summaries and conclusions that follow also reference the contribution and influence of extant literature.

6.2.1 RQ1: *Attributes of collaboration*

Attributes of collaboration are an important first consideration to the composition of collaboration. This is because the varying degrees of the attributes present in each collaboration ultimately determine the level of the collaboration. The dominant attributes of collaboration as identified in extant literature (theoretical attributes) differed from the attributes uncovered in the study (Chapter Five, Section 5.2). Although many of the attributes maintained the same "name" or "label", the definition of the attributes varied somewhat. The differences between the attributes are summarised in Table 6-1:

Table 6-1: Attributes of collaboration identified in empirical data versus extant literature

Present Study		Extant Literature (Austin, 2000: 72)
1	Managerial Complexity The structure of the transport function – the processes, structure and procedures behind collection and delivery and how the planning and execution of transport is completed.	Managerial Complexity Collaboration is either a simple or complex undertaking. Complexity is determined by the number, frequency and magnitude of inputs into (and outputs of) the collaboration; in other words, the extent of the intricacies of a collaboration.
2	Provision The physical resources, human resources, capabilities (skills, knowledge and expertise) and capacities (physical and financial) allocated by the business and/or humanitarian organisation for the purpose of the collaboration.	Magnitude of Resources Type and scale of the resources transferred.
3	Scope of Activities The range of activities performed in the collaboration (transport-related and other) and the geographical borders of said activities.	Scope of Activities The different activities (range of activities) present in a collaboration regardless of geography.
4	Communication The type of information communicated at any point of engagement and interaction.	Level of Engagement The kind of platforms where the collaborators meet and collaborate (engage).
5	Motivation for Collaboration The driver of continued collaboration.	Interaction Level Frequency of contact and/or exchange between the collaborating parties.
6	Benefits The advantages that the humanitarian organisation gains due to the collaboration and the spin-offs the company receives due to the collaboration.	Importance to Mission The degree to which the collaboration is central to the mission of both the company and humanitarian organisation.
7	Limitations The way in which the collaboration hampers the humanitarian organisation's growth or disadvantages the humanitarian organisation's ability to fulfil its mandate. The way in which the collaboration steals from or impedes on the company's productivity and/or business operations.	Strategic Value The flows of value in the collaboration and the direction of the flows (one-way or two-way).

There were seven fundamental reasons why the collaboration attributes in the study differed from the theoretical attributes. These reasons are listed below:

1. Rather than being up to the companies' discretion, the transporters' service offering differ according to the unique transport needs of the organisations.
2. Where extant literature includes financial donations, in-kind donations and/or core competency exchanges as possible forms of collaboration, the focus in this study is on only transport provision (core competency exchange) as a form of collaboration.
3. Each transporter responds to the transport needs of the humanitarian organisation precisely when the organisation requires it, thus it is irrelevant to consider the frequency of interaction as an attribute because each collaboration is unique in this sense.

4. Collaborating parties can communicate frequently or infrequently, on strategic boards or not, but the kind of information communicated is the ultimate determinant of whether a collaboration is operating at a high or low level.
5. A company's motivation for maintaining a collaboration is not limited to whether the collaboration is central to its organisational mission or not, but extends to other possibilities.
6. The study reveals that it is the benefits in a collaboration that hold varying degrees of value; some have strategic value and some do not.
7. Limitations are important to consider in light of strategic CSI being measured according to the maximisation of benefits. It would be no good to measure benefits without consideration of the limitations of the parties.

Hence, the attributes of collaboration as defined by extant literature can only be applied to transport collaborations to a limited extent. Each form of collaboration deserves its own, uniquely defined attributes in order to accurately understand its functioning. Thus, in this study, it was necessary to identify the attributes as revealed in transport collaborations rather than assuming that the attributes of general cross-sector collaborations identified in extant literature would be applicable.

6.2.2 RQ2: Degrees of attribute variation

The degrees of attribute variation uncovered in the study were significantly different to those suggested in extant theory. The descriptions of the degrees of variation according to extant theory seem to refer (implicitly) to an assumed “ideal” collaboration against which parties should measure themselves when determining the different degrees to which they operate, and consequently the level at which they operate.

This study revealed, however, that a more fitting way to identify the degree of variation in the attributes of collaboration is to consider how they relate to ordinary practice – the business' existing practices and the humanitarian organisation's existing practices. Accordingly, each attribute had three degrees of variation – that is, three degrees which describe how closely the collaborators operate to ordinary practice. Each party in the collaboration should be empowered in its own area of expertise and should, therefore, be operating as similar to its ordinary practice as possible. If a partner is attempting to conform to a particular “ideal” then it moves out of its expertise which could have implications for the success of the collaboration. Consequently, it is best to measure a collaboration by comparing each partner's operation in the collaboration with their operation in ordinary practice.

The effect of measuring transport collaboration in comparison to the partners' ordinary practice is the preservation of the individuality of each collaboration. It does not call all transport

collaborations to conform to a single ideal, thereby denying their individuality. But rather, it encourages the greatest effectiveness out of collaborations by allowing each of the partners to contribute their area of expertise without compromise.

6.2.2.1 *Three-sphere analysis tool*

The empirical findings revealed that the seven attributes of collaboration can be clustered in three groups (or “spheres”) due to the manner in which the degrees of each group of attributes vary. When each sphere is analysed, according to how its attributes vary in a particular collaboration, it reveals something unique about the collaboration. The three spheres are named according to what they reveal about the collaboration, and they are listed below:

- 1) Degree of integration
- 2) Consideration of impact
- 3) Actual impact of collaboration

The “three-sphere analysis tool” describes the application of the three spheres during the process of analysing a transport collaboration. Rather than leaving collaborators to figure out by trial and error what would lead to the achievement of strategic CSI, the three-sphere analysis tool brings light to what influences the final impact of a collaboration.

The first sphere of analysis (degree of integration) is analysed by considering how the attributes of managerial complexity, provision and scope of activities vary from ordinary practice. The second sphere of analysis (consideration of impact) is analysed by considering how the attributes of communication and motivation for collaboration vary from ordinary practice. The third sphere of analysis (actual impact) is analysed by considering how the attributes of benefits and limitations vary from ordinary practice. Extant literature seems mostly to measure collaborations according to only the degree of integration in a collaboration. These researchers suggest that the highest achievement of a collaboration is a high degree of integration. However, this study suggests that there are two additional spheres of analysis to consider, because strategic CSI is considered the highest achievement of transport collaboration (not only a high degree of integration).

The first additional sphere (consideration of impact) is significant because a collaboration might have a high degree of integration, but, if the partners are not consistently making effort to improve the impact of the collaboration on the other party, then benefits may not be maximised – maximised benefits being the very outcome of strategic CSI. Thus, the study demonstrates the importance of collaborating partners in a transport collaboration actively making effort to consider the impact of the collaboration on the opposite party if they are to attain a level of strategic CSI. The second additional sphere (actual impact of collaboration) ties the first two spheres together. It determines how the degree of integration (Sphere 1) and consideration of

impact (Sphere 2) in a collaboration have influenced the final impact of the collaboration (Sphere 3).

Essentially, the final impact of a collaboration – that is, the distribution of benefits and limitations – is what ultimately categorises it as a strategic CSI or not. By measuring both benefits and limitations in the third sphere of analysis, the study acknowledges that although strategic CSI is identified by the maximisation of benefits between the parties in collaboration, it does not mean much if one party faces losses more than what it gains. Significant limitations overrule significant benefits. In this way, the study challenges the very definition of strategic CSI in reference to transport collaborations. Strategic CSI is indeed the maximisation of benefits, but it should also be considered the representation of minimal limitations.

6.2.3 RQ3: Strategic CSI through transport collaboration

Through the research, RQ3 sought first to establish what the composition of the highest level of collaboration (strategic CSI) is before determining the subsequent levels of collaboration (addressed in RQ4). The study suggests that the benefits in a strategic CSI collaboration are sustainability and the facilitation of large scale operations for the humanitarian organisation; as well as, competitive and stakeholder benefit for the transport provider. These are proposed to constitute the maximisation of benefits for both parties in a CSI transport collaboration. It was also found that, in addition to maximised benefits, strategic CSI collaborations hold minimal limitations for the collaborating parties. The benefits and limitations in a transport collaboration are the immediate indicators as to whether the collaboration can be considered strategic CSI or not and, when applying three-sphere analysis, they are discoverable in Sphere 3 (actual impact of collaboration).

The findings further identify two additional features of strategic CSI in transport collaborations. Firstly, the general operations, structure and processes in the collaboration are almost identical to the ordinary practice of each respective collaboration partner, thereby resulting in a high degree of integration. Secondly, the collaborating partners demonstrate an intentional consideration of the impact of the collaboration on each other, which is motivated by strategic alignment and evident in communication that demonstrates shared interests and objectives.

These conclusions were determined after an analysis of the cases of collaboration that best exemplified strategic CSI based on their distribution of benefits and limitations. The three-sphere analysis tool was used to conduct the analysis. For each party, in each case of collaboration, it was determined how Sphere 1 (degree of integration) and Sphere 2 (consideration of impact) influenced Sphere 3 (actual impact of the collaboration). In doing so, the analysis extrapolated the specific combination of attributes at work in the collaborations considered the best exemplification of strategic CSI. Accordingly, Case A (*67 Blankets* and

Stuttafords) and Case B (OSSA and DHL) were viewed as the strongest cases for strategic CSI in the study. Over and above demonstrating the feasibility of transport collaboration as a form of strategic CSI, the cases also demonstrated the feasibility of transport collaboration as a means to alleviating the burden of high transport costs for humanitarian organisations.

Another conclusion that can be drawn is that partners neither have to adjust to new methods and procedures, nor do they have to apply new expertise in order for a collaboration to be a successful form of strategic CSI. If the partners are strategically aligned so that the needs of the humanitarian organisation match the capacities and capabilities of the transporter, then it is sufficient for strategic CSI. This means that the company can then continue with its standard managerial structures, processes and procedures, thereby providing the humanitarian organisation with the same services and resources that it provides clients. The only difference, of course, is that these are provided free of charge. Any additional efforts by the company to aid the humanitarian organisation can simply be seen as value-adds to the organisation.

Thus, the study emphasises the importance of the partners being strategically aligned, from even the inauguration of collaboration, so that the ordinary practice of either party compliments the other. When strategic alignment is present, the partners are free to operate within their areas of expertise, thereby fast-tracking the collaboration to achieve strategic CSI. Another related conclusion is that where there is strategic alignment, humanitarian organisations should pay attention to fashioning the growth of their operation in accordance with the ordinary practices of their transport provider. Ideally, in a transport collaboration, the partners should function as though they are a single entity. Therefore, it would be ineffective and nonsensical for the humanitarian organisation to plan future moves without taking into consideration the strengths of their transport provider counterpart. Planning for growth in this way would not necessarily hinder the mission of the organisation, but with some strategic planning, it could actually be to its benefit. This is because when a transporter operates within its areas of strength and expertise, it is always likely to be to the benefit of the humanitarian organisation.

The study further concludes that strategic alignment is only really complete when the partners display shared interests and objectives, because only then are the partners inspired to action initiatives that benefit the other. Shared interests and objectives keep the company planning for, and communicating with, the humanitarian organisation about possibilities of expansion. Simultaneously, they sustain the humanitarian organisation's efforts to involve the company in events and opportunities that bring competitive benefit. In this way, the study highlighted the value of humanitarian organisations' arrangement of networking events for all of their stakeholders.

Furthermore, humanitarian organisations should be strategic in whom they invite to partner with them. It is suggested that they consider carefully how their different partners, sponsors and donors relate to one another. The study found that the greater the potential for business between their stakeholders, the greater the advantage to the stakeholders for being in collaboration with the humanitarian organisation.

When all of these aspects are at play, transport providers could obtain maximum stakeholder and competitive benefits, whilst the humanitarian organisation could obtain the maximum benefits of sustainability and facilitation of large scale operations (or growth). Moreover, the parties would maintain minimum limitations. The combination of these benefits and minimal limitations are indicative of strategic CSI. It can be further concluded, therefore, that in a collaboration that demonstrates strategic CSI, there would be benefits available to both parties that cannot necessarily be achieved outside of the transport collaboration.

6.2.4 RQ4: Levels of collaboration

Most extant literature considers the levels of collaboration as a continuum where collaborating partners can move from lower levels of collaboration to higher levels as strategies, decisions and actions are adapted. Although it was initially anticipated that levels of transport collaboration would be uncovered, the study actually revealed three “types” of collaboration compositions instead:

Type 1 Complex

Type 2 Cooperative

Type 3 Strategic

As implied by the names of the different types, one composition of collaboration is considered better than another. Type 1 would be least favourable due to its level of complication; Type 3 would be most favourable as it could exemplify strategic CSI; and Type 2 demonstrates flexibility and a level of compromise, hence it is neither complex nor strategic and so, it falls in the middle of the two classifications. Unlike extant literature, the types of collaboration uncovered in the study do not suggest any form of progression. It was found that if a collaboration displays a complex composition from the beginning, it is unlikely that it will move to a strategic composition with the adjustment of strategies. A complex collaboration can grow only in complexity, whilst a strategic collaboration can grow in strategic CSI. Therefore, a collaboration should have a strategic composition from its inauguration if it is to achieve strategic CSI. However, the benefits associated with a strategic collaboration are not guaranteed without the initiative of the participants. If partners are in a strategic collaboration, based on the framework, it would mean that they possess the potential to enjoy maximum benefits, but it these are not guaranteed without the intentionality of the partners.

The different types of collaboration (which are presented in more detail in Chapter Five, Section 5.5) epitomise a transport collaboration framework. By presenting the possible compositions of collaboration, the framework can now guide the widespread establishment of strategic collaborations that maximise benefits and maintain minimal limitations for both parties. Before a framework to inform this process, succeeding in strategic CSI through a transport collaboration might have been considered only a “lucky feat”. However, with the application of the framework, strategic CSI can now be planned for.

The framework is not decisive in itself because of how each collaboration has intricacies which cannot be conclusively defined by any framework. It does, however, provide a guide to understanding, analysing and planning transport collaborations. It can be concluded then, that every future transport collaboration could be a form of strategic CSI if the framework is applied as a guide. The implications of its application could be significant. It could result in humanitarian organisations’ avoidance of heavy transport costs over the long term; the expansion of humanitarian organisations’ borders of social impact and consequently, the sustainability and growth of the positive development efforts initiated by such organisations in the country. The framework also protects against fruitless collaborations that cost more than what can be gained from them. This is because of how the framework acts as a warning to collaborators that qualify as a complex, or even cooperative, collaboration where growth and improvement in these collaboration types are limited. Additionally, transport companies might no longer experience CSI collaboration as a “thorn in their side” or mere obligation, but rather an opportunity for stakeholder and competitive benefit that cannot be attained elsewhere.

6.3 SUMMARY OF RECOMMENDATIONS

The recommendations that follow in this section are extrapolated from the conclusions of the study, mentioned in the previous section, and therefore follow the same logic. The conclusion will briefly be mentioned (or recapped) in each subsection before expanding on the specific recommendation. Important to note is that the study contains a vast number of conclusions; therefore, to make recommendations related to each one would mean going beyond the scope of the study. Highlighted in the subsections to follow are what were considered the main, or most prominent, recommendations of the study.

6.3.1 *Unique composition of transport collaborations*

The composition of transport collaboration is unique in both its attributes and the degrees by which the attributes vary. Transport collaborations are composed of seven attributes, each with three degrees of variation. The degrees of variation describe the ways in which the attributes of collaboration function differently from the parties’ ordinary practice.

It is recommended that transport collaborations be described using the composition suggested in this study instead of using a generic composition which describes “any” collaboration (commercial or humanitarian). Attempting to understand the workings of a transport collaboration using a generic composition could be biased and inapplicable, whereas, a composition specific to transport collaborations between transport providers and humanitarian organisations would lead to a more reliable understanding.

Also, it is recommended that transport collaborations be understood to differ based on how the operation of the partners in each collaboration differ from each of their ordinary practice. This is preferable to comparing one collaboration to another collaboration in order to distinguish its strength. Each collaboration is unique in its mission, function, scope and needs, and therefore, cannot (and should not) be compared to another.

6.3.2 *Three spheres of analysis in transport collaborations*

There are three spheres by which transport collaborations can be analysed. That is, three spheres that measure the strength of a collaboration and specifically how close to strategic CSI it operates. The spheres are: degree of integration, consideration of impact and actual impact of collaboration.

The distribution of attributes within the three spheres, and their relationship, can contribute to either the strength or weakness of a collaboration. Therefore, it is recommended that all three spheres be considered when analysing transport collaborations. The advantage to using these three particular spheres is that they provide a holistic interpretation of the collaboration and give insight into the inner-workings of the collaboration which influence its final impact.

6.3.3 *Strategic CSI includes maximised benefits as well as minimal limitations*

Strategic CSI is defined as the point at which benefits are maximised for the company and social cause. However, it is recommended that when measuring strategic CSI in transport collaborations, the limitations experienced by the parties in collaboration should also be considered. If there is a maximisation of benefits but also major limitations, then it is suggested that the collaboration not be considered strategic CSI. Rather, strategic CSI in transport collaborations should be considered the point where benefits are maximised and limitations are minimised. Where limitations are substantial, benefits can no longer be maximised.

6.3.4 *Strategic alignment of collaborating partners is first priority*

Strategic alignment of transport services and transport needs, in addition to shared objectives, are pivotal if a transport collaboration is to experience strategic CSI. If there is strategic alignment, partners should not have to adjust to new methods and procedures, or apply new

expertise in order for a collaboration to be a successful form of strategic CSI. The greatest effectiveness will always be found when both parties are excelling in their particular areas of expertise.

Therefore, it is recommended that strategic alignment is the first thing that transport providers and humanitarian organisations seek before entering into a collaboration. If this is present, not only will the partners be free to operate within their respective areas of expertise, but they will also have the assurance that their counterpart will be working intentionally for mutual benefit. That is to say, with strategic alignment comes a high degree of integration and an intentional consideration of the impact of the collaboration by the partners, which all works together for the maximisation of benefits and minimisation of limitations.

6.3.5 *Collaborating partners should grow together*

It is recommended that where there is strategic alignment, humanitarian organisations should pay attention to fashioning the growth of their operation in accordance with the ordinary practices of their transport provider. As soon as a humanitarian organisation grows beyond the ability of their transport providers then it will be to the detriment of the collaboration. It might put a logistical strain on the transport provider whilst limiting the organisation's ability to grow. Therefore, it is recommended that the present strengths of the transport provider match the potential future needs of the humanitarian organisation.

Furthermore, where strategic CSI is the goal, companies should enter into collaborations sharing the mind of the humanitarian organisations when it comes to expanding the borders of social impact. That is to say, transport companies should be equally ready to accommodate the growth of the humanitarian organisations where it is within the scope of their ordinary practices. Although, this would be an existing characteristic of strategic alignment – where the transport provider and humanitarian organisation have shared interests and objectives.

6.3.6 *Networking events as ordinary practice in humanitarian organisations*

The study highlighted the value of humanitarian organisations' arrangement of networking events for their stakeholders. Networking events provide a benefit to the companies that might not have been available without the collaboration. It is an opportunity for companies to build relationships that could result in future business. Thus, it is recommended that humanitarian organisations make a practice of organising regular stakeholder networking events. It is a benefit to any partner associated with the humanitarian organisation, not just the transport provider in a transport collaboration. The benefits derived from such events serve as a motivation to companies to continue their relationship with the humanitarian organisation, due to the additional business that may be derived from new contacts at the networking events.

6.3.7 *Strategic approach to establishing a stakeholder-base*

Humanitarian organisations should be strategic in whom they invite to partner with them. It is recommended that they consider carefully how their different partners, sponsors and donors relate to one another. If the stakeholders of a humanitarian organisation hold nothing more in common than their connection to the organisation then there will be no benefit to their association with the organisation other than reputational benefit. However, if there is potential for the stakeholders to connect in the form of business or other beneficial transactions, then the benefit to stakeholder events remains steadfast.

Furthermore, where the networks that companies get introduced to through the humanitarian organisation are inaccessible through any other platform, it would make collaboration with the organisation somewhat imperative for business. Consequently, the advantage to the company and humanitarian organisation in this instance is substantial. Therefore, there is great value in pursuing donors and other stakeholders who can be linked to each other, such as through complementary industries, needs or missions.

6.3.8 *Company initiative in enjoying benefits of strategic CSI collaboration*

If a company should be in a Type 3 (strategic) collaboration, the benefits associated with strategic CSI would not be guaranteed without the initiative of the company. The collaboration type only sets the foundation for maximum benefits to be obtained. Therefore, it is recommended that in order for companies to maximise their benefit from collaboration, they ought to take initiative in making the most of the opportunities presented to them by their humanitarian organisation counterpart. It is easy for a company to attend stakeholder events as a courtesy, or to paste promotional stickers on their vehicles as an obligation, but there is greater benefit to be gained when a company discovers a strategic use to the opportunities presented. This was noted by at least two of the companies in the study.

6.3.9 *Application of a transport collaboration framework*

It was concluded that transport collaborations can be a form of strategic CSI if the framework is applied as a guide. By identifying three types of collaboration, the framework informs collaborators from the beginning as to what trajectory the collaboration is set. The collaboration could either be complex, cooperative or strategic.

It is recommended that the framework be applied in existing transport collaborations and be reviewed before the inauguration of future transport collaborations. Without the application of the framework, there would be a risk of collaboration failure, as well as possible difficulty in establishing transport collaborations as a form of strategic CSI.

Using the framework should assist existing transport collaborations to identify whether their present collaboration composition could lead to future success (in strategic CSI) or failure (through increasing complexity). It should, therefore, assist collaborators to make important decisions such as those relating to their future as partners. In this way, knowing offhand whether a collaboration could lead to an inevitable increase in complexity might save companies contributing money to an unstable and unpromising collaboration; whilst, it might save the humanitarian organisations from excessive limitations that hinder the accomplishment of their mission.

The review of the framework prior to the inauguration of a new transport collaboration should help inform the selection of partners (on the side of the company or humanitarian organisation), because potential partners would have the ability to project the trajectory of the collaboration that they would enter into. These projections can be done right from the beginning, based on where they would fit in the framework. Consequently, this could encourage widespread strategic CSI transport collaborations.

6.3.10 *Transport collaboration in preference to in-house CSI*

Transport collaborations are recommended as the preferred means of CSI for transport providers because of their ability to attain strategic CSI, as well as, to reduce the burden of transport costs for humanitarian organisations. Companies have the option of satisfying the SED obligations of BBBEE by running their own developmental programmes, or they can support an existing programme through the likes of a collaboration. It is further recommended that companies participate in collaborations rather than run their own programmes.

The company is an expert in its particular industry; whilst, humanitarian organisations are the experts of social development. In a collaboration, the company can then focus on what it is best at, releasing it from the administration, research and expertise required to run a development programme. Indeed, these functions generally do not form part of a transport company's core competency. Hence, for highest effectiveness in development efforts and the smallest hindrance to business, it is recommended that experts apply their area of expertise in CSI initiatives which, for a transport provider, would be best achieved in a transport collaboration.

Moreover, there is greater developmental expertise that can be accessed in existing humanitarian organisations which holds the potential for a meaningful social impact, especially when added to the professional expertise of the likes of a transport provider. Without the experience and expertise of a humanitarian organisation, it might be particularly challenging for companies to achieve strategic CSI through in-house initiatives. Companies would have to maximise the social benefit to the communities that they serve, whilst ensuring that the

business also receives maximum competitive and stakeholder benefits in order for their programme to be considered strategic CSI. Whereas, in a collaboration, maximising social benefit is made possible through the strategic planning of the development experts (the humanitarian organisations) together with the transport expertise of transport providers. Whilst, the maximisation of company benefits is made possible through opportunities provided by the humanitarian organisation (such as networking events), together with the company's own initiative in making strategic use of the opportunities. Strategic CSI in transport collaboration, would therefore, be achieved by the collective effort of the collaborators rather than by only one party.

It might be convenient for companies to run their own programmes. However, if strategic alignment is present and growing in the collaboration, then the company would not need to be too concerned over a clash of schedule or incompatibility with the humanitarian organisation which threaten business, thereby rendering void in-house programmes' appeal of convenience. It was also concluded that in a collaboration demonstrating strategic CSI, there are benefits available to both parties that cannot necessarily be achieved outside of transport collaboration. The advantage of gaining access to networks through the social events and media opportunities presented by humanitarian organisations might not be available in a CSI initiative that is run in-house.

Furthermore, the need among humanitarian organisations for free transport provision through something like transport collaboration is significant, and transport assistance of this proportion could only be substantiated through a CSI initiative. Therefore, for the sake of the longevity and expansion of many developmental programmes run by humanitarian organisations across the country, transport provision through a strategic CSI collaboration is highly recommended.

6.4 CONTRIBUTION TO KNOWLEDGE

It can be concluded that the study successfully contributed to the gaps in knowledge in the areas of: transport collaboration as a possible means to save transport costs in humanitarian organisations; transport collaboration as a form of strategic CSI; and a defined composition of transport collaboration. However, more than a contribution to gaps in knowledge, the study made an original contribution to knowledge. Owing to the uniqueness of this multiple-case study, the empirical research presents an original contribution to knowledge in three major ways, all of which connect to the gaps in research identified at the offset of the study.

Firstly, no other researcher has focused on transport collaboration between (road) transport providers and humanitarian organisations as a means of alleviating transport costs among humanitarian organisations. Much research in humanitarian logistics focuses on fleet management in disaster relief operations as an area of transport cost-saving. Hence, this study

is the first to bring insight into transport collaborations between transport providers and humanitarian organisations that run development programmes and which do not own vehicle fleets. Empirical evidence from the research legitimises transport collaboration as a means of alleviating transport costs among humanitarian organisations. The study reveals that transport collaboration is a feasible and sustainable means for transport cost savings among humanitarian organisations. In the same way, by demonstrating the potential strategic impact of transport collaborations, the study vindicates future research on the topic of transport collaboration.

Secondly, the study makes a contribution to the knowledge of strategic CSI. There is a growing quantity of valuable research on CSI and strategic CSI, even in a South African context. But it has not yet grown to incorporate deep insights into specific examples of strategic CSI. Hence, the study is first to contribute to the knowledge of transport collaborations as a form of strategic CSI. Indeed, the study uncovered that not only is strategic CSI possible in transport collaborations, but it is something that can be planned for and something for which collaborators can be “set up” for from the inauguration of their collaboration. Furthermore, the study suggests an adaption of the definition of strategic CSI to include “minimal limitations” in addition to maximised benefits, particularly when referring to transport collaborations.

Transport collaborations are already in existence; yet, no researcher has set out to understand the composition of such collaboration. Therefore, the third contribution to knowledge by the study is a transport collaboration framework which describes three possible compositions of transport collaboration. The contribution to knowledge of cross-sector collaborations by Austin (2000) was substantial and certainly aided this study’s approach to understanding transport collaboration. However, the empirical research revealed that the composition of collaboration suggested by Austin (2000) could not be applied to transport collaborations. Hence, this study was a first contribution to the knowledge of the composition of transport collaboration between transport providers and humanitarian organisations running development programmes.

Related to the transport collaboration framework, is the three-sphere analysis tool introduced in the study. The tool facilitates the analysis and measurement of transport collaborations to reveal their unique composition. There have not been any previous studies that have introduced any sort of process or tool to aid or guide the understanding and deconstruction of transport collaborations between humanitarian organisations and transport providers. Through the application of the tool, the process of analysis becomes holistic and unbiased. The tool also does more than just identify what the type of composition a collaboration holds, but it also guides the identification of the specific attributes that have a major influence on the outcome and impact of the collaboration.

6.5 LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

The research has some limitations which lend themselves to possibilities for future research. Described in the section below are six limitations and suggested future studies.

6.5.1 Further testing of the transport collaboration framework

The study used four cases of transport collaboration to derive a framework for transport collaboration. Although the four cases appeared sufficient to draw conclusions and recommendations, there would still be potential for an additional study to test the applicability and validity of the framework. In so doing, the framework might be validated, expanded, improved upon or described in greater detail and the subsequent research might further promote the widespread application of the framework.

6.5.2 The maximisation of benefits and minimisation of limitations in transport collaboration

The study reveals the fundamental composition of collaboration that could potentially lead to strategic CSI with the effort of the collaborators. However, it does not include an in-depth expansion on precisely how the parties could maximise the benefits whilst maintaining minor limitations. Thus, future research might investigate means to achieve these results once a collaboration is classified as strategic.

6.5.3 Monetary benefits of transport collaboration to transport providers

Both this study and extant literature reference stakeholder benefit and competitive benefit as the highest benefits of strategic CSI. Yet, there is little to no research that reveals the monetary value behind these benefits. This would be a worthwhile area to investigate in order to further motivate transport collaborations through CSI and also, validate the value of strategic CSI in transport collaboration.

6.5.4 Transport collaborations versus in-house CSI programmes

The study focuses on collaboration between an existing company and existing humanitarian organisation. Whilst the study does offer some commentary as to why collaborations are preferable for transport providers instead of an in-house CSI programme, there is much contention as to which would be better. Future studies could expand on if or how collaborations are the preferable form of CSI for transport providers and humanitarian organisations.

6.5.5 Three-party transport collaborations (business, government and civil society)

The ideal would be for business, government and civil society (humanitarian organisations) to work together to maximise social impact in the country. However, the study focuses on only

the relationship between business and humanitarian organisations. Therefore, it would be valuable to have future research that determines either how government could get involved in collaborations which already exist such as those in the study, or how new transport collaborations with all three parties could begin and be sustained.

6.5.6 *Shared value in transport collaboration*

The study aims to promote the achievement of strategic CSI between transport providers and humanitarian organisations, but the ultimate achievement would be that of shared value. Shared value is when the operations of a company simultaneously enhance the business' competitive environment and social conditions of the community in which it operates. Future research that explores the potential for transport collaborations to achieve shared value would be particularly valuable.

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APPENDIX A: CASE STUDY PROTOCOL

Case Study Protocol

An exploration of road-transport collaboration between private transport providers and humanitarian organisations through strategic CSI: A case-based approach

Department of Logistics • Stellenbosch University

1. INTRODUCTION

The case study protocol, as described by (Yin, 2009: 79) is a tool used to guide the data collection process. Yin (2009: 79) further states that a protocol is essential for multiple-case studies; also, that it increases the reliability of case study research. Therefore, a protocol was identified as an important addition to the present study on road transport collaboration between private transport providers and humanitarian development programs through strategic Corporate Social Investment (CSI). The case study protocol is a tool created for the researcher alone.

2. CASE STUDY OVERVIEW

The overview of the case study will include the background of the research, research objective and questions, overview of the theoretical framework of the study which includes a summary of relevant readings.

2.1. RESEARCH BACKGROUND

Humanitarian organisations, predominantly development programs, in South Africa play a significant role in attending to a variety of social issues in the country. With little support from the government, organisations rely on various kinds of aid from the private sector in order to sustain and expand operations. Transportation is one of the highest costs of many humanitarian organisations, to a crippling effect. When the largest percentage of funding is allocated to cover the cost of transport, little is left over for the expansion of development programs.

Presently, many companies' involvement in social challenges in the country is motivated by the socio-economic development (SED) subsection of the broad based black economic empowerment (BBBEE) scorecard that allocates points for corporate social investment (CSI). There has been a call for more strategic CSI in the country where mere monetary contributions are replaced by collaborative and integrative efforts that run over the long term. Such collaboration in the context of transportation could witness companies contributing transport resources to a humanitarian organisation in order to reduce the weight of transport costs. Moreover, the benefits of such collaboration for the company extend far wider than BBBEE points.

Despite the advantages of collaboration for both the humanitarian organisation and company, there is no existing framework that can guide the establishment of this kind of private-humanitarian collaboration. An investigation into the modality of company contribution to transportation in development programs might inspire greater numbers of companies to establish strategic partnerships with humanitarian organisations in the country. This would be

due to collaboration becoming far more achievable with a guideline such as a modelled framework for collaboration to guide the establishment of the strategic partnership. The framework should be aligned with the BBBEE/SED scorecard and it should favour access to benefits for both the company and development program. Additionally, a framework could pave the way for more impactful humanitarian operations in the country.

2.2. RESEARCH OBJECTIVE & RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The main objective of the study is to explore road-transport collaboration of private transport providers and development programs through strategic CSI for the ultimate establishment of a framework for collaboration.

The secondary research questions of the study are defined as follows:

- i. What are the levels of transport collaboration present among humanitarian organisations and transport providers;
- ii. What mechanisms are present in such collaboration;
- iii. What is the role and influence of CSI in collaboration;
- iv. What are the key elements for a framework of collaboration?

2.3. PROJECT STATEMENT

Ultimately, this case study hopes to determine the key elements necessary to model a framework for the collaboration of transport services between private transport providers and humanitarian organisations' development programs through strategic CSI. This is for the purpose of expanding the reach of efforts that combat social challenges in the country. There has, fittingly, been somewhat of a call for strategic CSI in the country – where the benefits of CSI initiatives are realised for both the humanitarian organisation and private transport provider (in this case) over the long term.

The focus of the study is on transportation due to transport being one of the highest expenses of a number of humanitarian operations. Its expense is so great that a larger portion of funding is allocated to transport before any provisions that could lead to the actual expansion of operations. Taking these factors into account, this study will investigate the elements necessary to formalise a framework for transport collaboration through strategic CSI.

2.4. RATIONALE FOR CASE SELECTION

The four cases selected for the study comprise of a development program and respective transport provider. Each of the development programs rely somewhat on transportation: some transport volunteers, some beneficiaries, some materials and some other kinds of aid. They are summarised in Table A-1.

Table A-1: Summary of cases

Case Study	Development Program	Transport Provider
1	Santa Shoebox Project	Laser Logistics
2	Children of the Dawn	MDS
3	Pebbles Project	Multiple transport providers
4	Hippo Roller	<i>ad hoc</i>
5	Operation Smile	DHL

Each case is expected to demonstrate a different level of collaboration with a transport provider and this is necessary for a number of reasons. Firstly, various levels of collaboration ought to be included in the study in order that the framework for collaboration accommodates different needs for and perspectives of collaboration. Secondly, the polar-type cases will also either affirm or deny the relevance of pursuing further research in transport collaboration in the humanitarian sector as well as clarify whether a framework for collaboration is a worthwhile tool to establish. Thirdly, given the limited number of cases available to research, polar-type cases are required to enhance the generalisability of the findings of the study. Finally, Eisenhardt (1989:537) mentions that polar-type sampling has been successfully applied to a number of case-based theoretical studies which were similarly purposed to introduce new theory to a particular field; therefore it is a reliable approach for this study.

Yin (2009: 54) suggests that each case should be carefully selected to predict either a) similar results, called literal replication; or b) contrasting results but for “anticipatable” reasons, called theoretical replication. In terms of literal and theoretical replications, cases one, three and five represent literal replications as both clearly demonstrate strong forms of transport collaboration. Cases two and four represent theoretical replications that demonstrate weak or non-existent collaboration. Yin (2009: 58) prescribes that the selected number of theoretical replications is dependent on the discretion of the researcher. In this study, the two cases which represent theoretical replications represent two of the major alternatives to formal collaboration; namely, no collaboration or *ad hoc* collaboration. Therefore, two theoretical replications are sufficient for the present study.

In terms of literal replications, Yin (2009: 58) suggests that 2/3 cases that represent literal replication is sufficient if the emergent theory is straightforward and does not demand an excessive degree of certainty. Collaboration is evident in cases two and three; therefore, no more cases are necessary to affirm the presence of collaboration between humanitarian organisations and transport providers. Table A-2 summarises the rationale for the selection of cases in the study.

Table A-2: Summary of case-selection rationale

Motivation	
1	Framework must accommodate varying levels of collaboration
2	Contrasting opinions of collaboration affirm or deny its usefulness and relevance
3	Polar-type cases to increase generalisability
4	Polar-type case studies are a reliable means to generate new theory
5	Literal replications predicting similar results
6	Theoretical replications predicting contrasting results for anticipatable reasons to improve reliability of findings and to cancel bias

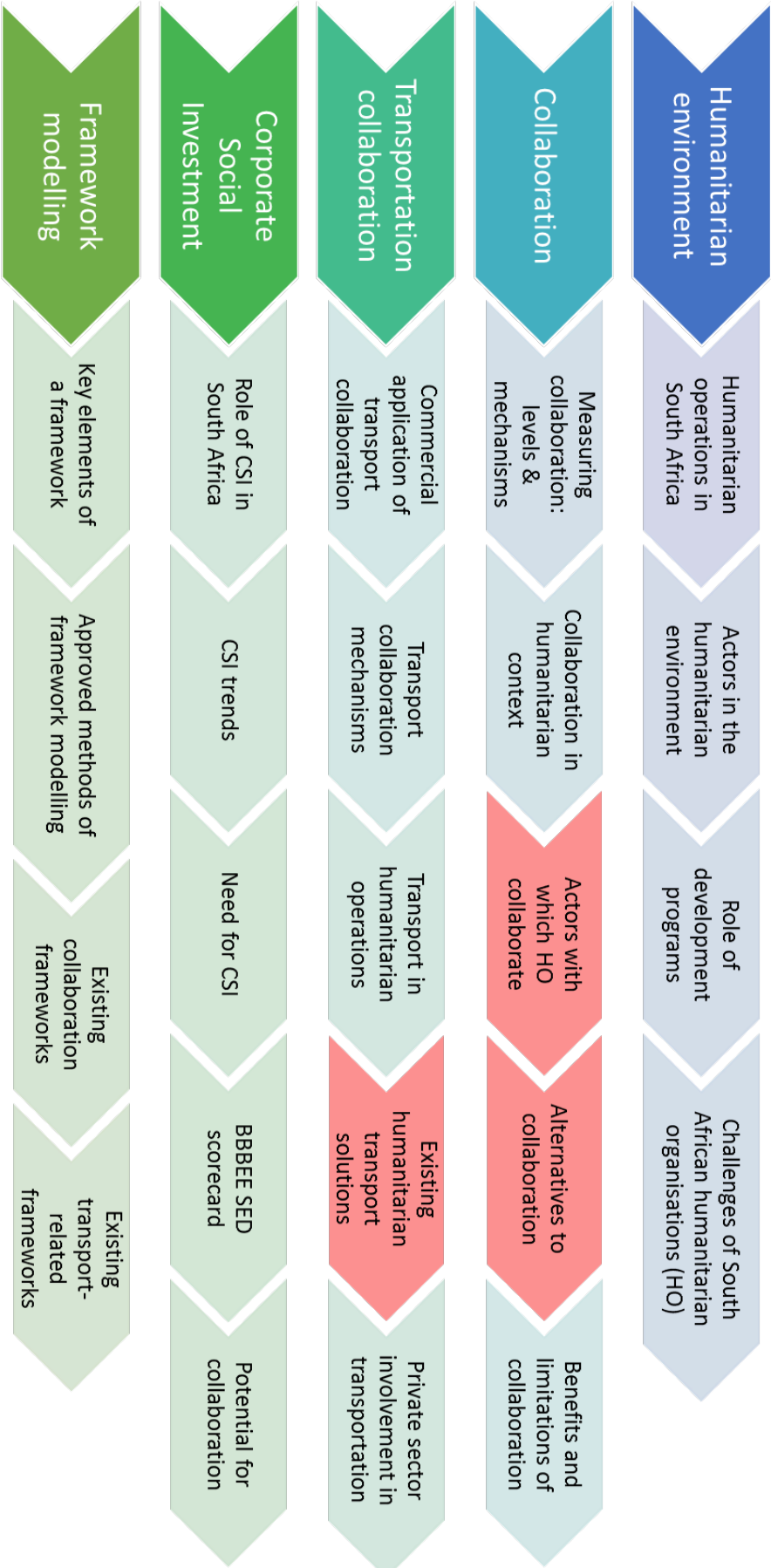
2.5. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Although extant literature is little, exploratory studies do require a foundation of existing theory that validates the topic which is to be explored, the purpose of the exploration and criteria by which the exploration will be judged successful (Yin, 2009: 37).

There is very little to no existing literature on the topic of transport collaboration in development programs. Therefore, the proposed theoretical framework (illustrated in figure 1) will provide a platform on which build the validity of the present exploratory case study on transport provider and development program collaboration. Theory that addresses five major themes will be investigated, namely: the humanitarian environment, collaboration, transportation collaboration, CSI and framework modelling. These themes do not cover “development program and transport provider collaboration” specifically, but form at least a basic foundation on which to launch an exploratory study and consequently build theory on such collaboration.

Figure 1, is a logic model that summarises the theory of which the said foundation will consist. The literature review of this exploratory study will follow the logic model in order to build a suitable theoretical framework.

Figure A-1: Theoretical framework logic model



2.6. RIVAL THEORIES

Both Eisenhardt (1989: 544) and Yin (2009: 34) point out the importance of addressing rival propositions and examining alternative views to the subject of investigation. Moreover, these rival propositions and views contribute to the internal validity and overall quality of the study. The more rival propositions that are addressed, the more confidence can be held in the study's findings (Yin, 2009: 134).

The red shapes in the logic model (Figure A-1) highlight those sections of the theoretical framework that consider perspectives which are contrary to the method of collaboration with transport providers. The first perspective is collaboration with different actors such as government and other humanitarian organisations as a rival perspective to collaboration with transport providers. Secondly, previous research which has highlighted alternate methods to collaboration in order to reduce strained resources or increase transport capacity will be considered. Finally, alternative measures which humanitarian organisations have put in place to address high transportation costs will also be covered.

3. DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

3.1. NAMES OF NPOS AND COMPANIES INVESTIGATED

Table A-3: Humanitarian organisation contact information

Development Program	Contact Person	Position	Email Address
Santa Shoebox	Debbie Zelezniak	CEO	debbie@santashoebox.co.za
Operation Smile	Grizelda Noble	Logistics Coordinator	grizelda.noble@operationsmile.org
Children of the Dawn	Tendai Mugabe	Administrative Coordinator	tendai@childrenofthedawn.org.za
Pebbles Project	Charmaine Gola	Fundraising & PR	charmaine@pebblesproject.co.za
Hippo Roller	Grant Gibbs	Executive Director	grant.gibbs@hipporoller.org

Table A-4: Transport provider contact information

Transport Provider	Contact Person	Position	Email Address
Laser Logistics	Johann Pretorius	CEO	johannp@laserlogistics.co.za
MDS Visapak	Victor Mosca	Special Projects Manager	victor@collivery.co.za
DHL	Ciaran Wheeler	Manager: Marketing & Communications	Ciaran.Wheeler@dhl.com
3 Wings Logistics	Paul		paul@3wings.co.za

Ensure that during the interview process that the interviewee is well-informed about the topic and where appropriate, request to be referred to a better-informed individual within the organisation or company.

3.2. CASE STUDY DESIGN

This research takes the format of a mixed method and embedded multiple-case study. At least two methods of data collection will be used to build each case; that is interviews and questionnaires. An embedded study is one that involves more than one unit of analysis (Yin, 2009: 50) within each case. In the present study, collaboration is the primary unit of analysis but, transportation expenditure will also be analysed to assess the impact and effect of collaboration.

3.3. DATA COLLECTION PLAN

Table A-5 details the proposed data collection timeframe:

Table A-5: Data collection timeframe

	Activity	Duration	Start	Finish
1	Approach research participants	2 days	Thu 28/04/16	Fri 29/04/16
2	Complete literature review/ theoretical framework	55 days	Tue 03/05/16	Mon 18/07/16
3	Set up data collection instruments for first round of collection	4 days	Tue 24/05/16	Fri 27/05/16
4	Schedule interviews for the week of 1 June	3 days	Mon 16/05/16	Wed 18/05/16
5	Commence interviews and send out questionnaires: Round 1	8 days	Wed 01/06/16	Fri 10/06/16
6	Follow up phone calls	4 days	Mon 13/06/16	Thu 16/06/16
7	Interviews & Questionnaires: Round 2	11 days	Mon 27/06/16	Mon 11/07/16
8	Consolidate data & build case studies	24 days	Thu 30/06/16	Tue 02/08/16

Interviews should be conducted in the most practical and comfortable space for the interviewees. Therefore, where possible, give preference to the participant's desired location for the interview.

3.4. METHOD OF DATA COLLECTION

Non-standardised (qualitative) semi-structured interviews.

- List of themes and questions but they may vary interview to interview
- Additional questions may be required to explore the research question and objectives given the nature of events within particular organisations (Saunders *et al.*, 2009: 320)

3.5. EXPECTED PREPARATION PRIOR TO DATA COLLECTION

This section outlines protocol for the collection of data as well as post-collection. Throughout all phases of data collection, the procedures that were followed must be documented. Also, the researcher should keep an annotated bibliography of documents collected from data collection activities.

The first round of interviews will be a combination of both an in-depth and focused interview, where there will be an element of structure but much space for the interviewee to provide his/her own insights. The second round of interviews will most likely be focused, where specific areas that were not sufficiently addressed in the first round will be covered by specific questions in the second round.

3.5.1.Prior to round one interviews

- a) List main topics to be covered and use as a checklist
- b) Send a list of main topics to the interviewee two days before the interview
- c) List any documentation required by the research participant
 - a. Attempt to gain information from more than one source of evidence during the interview
- d) Review study questions outlined in the protocol
- e) For qualitative data, outline the requirements exactly
- f) Prepare document to capture data from the interview
- g) Have consent forms ready

3.5.2.Prior to round two interviews

- a) Review parking list from previous interview
- b) List any documentation required by the research participant
- c) List outstanding topics to be covered and use as a checklist
- d) Review study questions outlined in the protocol
- e) For qualitative data, outline the requirements exactly
- f) Prepare document to capture data from the interview

3.6. POST COLLECTION-ACTIVITY PROCEDURES

- a) Ensure that all electronic documents are saved onto one database
- b) Ensure that interview notes are saved electronically, in the case where hand written notes were taken
- c) Consolidate all data and information collected into separate folders electronically
- d) Back up all data and information on Dropbox
- e) Forward any notes to the interviewee to confirm their accuracy

- f) Update the bibliography of documents obtained from data collection activities, thereby establishing a chain of evidence
 - i. Cite documents obtained from specific interviews
- g) Keep and add notes of open-ended answers to the questions outlined in the protocol
- h) Indicate those areas that were not sufficiently covered in round one of the interviews and write them into a parking list to either,
 - i. Address with the participant in a follow-up phone call; or
 - ii. Address with the participant in round two of interviews.
- i) Make a list of intermediate propositions

4. DATA ANALYSIS TECHNIQUES

Table A-6 contains a brief summary of the predicted data analysis techniques to keep in mind before and during data collection:

Table A-6: Summary of predicted data analysis techniques

1	Within case analysis	Identify trends and recurrences within each case before premature predictions (avoid bias).
2	Cross case patterns (Eisenhardt) Cross case synthesis (Yin)	Select categories or dimensions through which to look for within-group similarities as well as intergroup differences. Select pairs of cases and list the similarities and differences between each.
3	Reality test	Present findings to research participants before finalising conclusions.
4	Explanation building	a. Make initial theoretical statement or initial proposition b. Compare the findings of an initial case against such a statement or proposition c. Revise the statement or proposition d. Compare other details of the case against the revision e. Compare the revision to the facts of a second, third or more cases f. Repeat this process as many times as is needed
5	Logic model	Define prior to collection (program-level).

5. RESEARCH QUALITY PROVISIONS

Research quality is measured by the construct validity, internal validity, external validity and reliability of the study.

This section outlines any procedural or other provisions that must be adhered to during data collection in order to ensure the highest quality of research.

Table A-7: Summary of research quality provisions

Tests	Case study tactic	Phase of research
Construct validity	use multiple sources of evidence	data collection
	establish chain of evidence	data collection
	have key informants review draft case study report	composition
	define 'collaboration' in terms of specific concepts (and related them to the original objectives of the study)	data collection
	identify operational measures that match the concepts above	data collection
Internal validity	perform pattern matching	data analysis
	perform explanation building	data analysis
	address rival explanations	data analysis
	use logic models	data analysis
External validity	use replication	research design
Reliability	use case study protocol	data collection
	develop case study database	data collection
	document procedures	data collection
	maintain a chain of evidence	data collection

Construct validity involves the identification of correct operational measures for the concepts being studied. Internal validity is more relevant for explanatory studies than for exploratory studies because it seeks to establish a causal relationship, whereby certain conditions are believed to lead to other conditions. However, this study will make use of the same tactics suggested for internal validity, not to establish relationships, but rather to establish trends and commonalities among cases. External validity is to define the domain to which a study's findings can be generalised. Reliability demonstrates that the operations of a study can be repeated, with the same results.

6. OUTLINE OF CASE STUDY REPORT

- I. Brief history of organisation
- II. Operating conditions
- III. Transportation function in organisation
- IV. Donors of organisation & funding
- V. CSI involvement of private sector
- VI. Collaboration

7. CASE STUDY QUESTIONS

The case study questions outlined in the protocol reflect the actual line of inquiry (Yin: 2009: 86). They are questions posed to the researcher as reminders of the information that needs to be collected as well as the reasons why it should be collected.

7.1. QUESTIONS FOR HUMANITARIAN ORGANISATIONS

- 1) How does the transport provider meet their transport needs?
- 2) How does transport provision contribute to the expansion of their programme?

7.2. QUESTIONS FOR TRANSPORT PROVIDERS

- 1) How is transport provision to the humanitarian organisation synchronised with everyday business?
- 2) To what extent is the collaboration a benefit or impediment to everyday business?

APPENDIX B: DHL INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPT

DHL: Q&A | 7 September 2016 | DHL Global Forwarding, Johannesburg

Name	
Position	

1. Operating Conditions

General information about the transport operations of DHL.

1.1. General discussion

Transcript omitted from published thesis due to confidentiality reasons.
Please contact Ulrike Kussing (uk@sun.ac.za) if you require further details.

1.2.	What I am trying to establish with these questions is how the company integrates their assistance to the humanitarian operation with day-to-day business...	
2. Financials <i>The costs of transportation for Operation Smile</i>		
2.1.	How do you set the financial provision for Operation Smile?	
2.2.	Can you give me some examples of the opportunities that you have seen through Operation Smile that you can take advantage of?	
2.3.	Do you find that you benefit from Operation Smile as a large and reputable NGO?	
3. Level of engagement <i>A measure of the strength and scope of the relationship</i>		
3.1.	Can you please describe the planning process of a typical Operation Smile mission?	
3.2.	During the execution phase, once Grizelda has sent through all the necessary documentation, who takes over?	
3.3.	Can you think of another challenge that you have faced during transport that you overcame?	
3.4.	How does transport for corporate clients compare with transport for Operation Smile?	
3.5.	What items do you typically transport commercially?	
4. Financials		

The costs of transportation for Operation Smile		
4.1.	What kind of costs do you incur for this operation, the operating costs?	
4.2.	Grizelda mentioned about the times where they go cross country when DHL here will lead up until a point and then DHL in-country will take over...	
5. Magnitude of resources deployed		
<i>A description of, and the impact of, the resources and capacities provided to Operation Smile for their operations</i>		
5.1.	What do you provide for a mission from DHL-side?	
5.2.	Does the transport provided for Operation Smile impede on everyday business?	
6. Managerial complexity		
<i>The integration of humanitarian assistance with everyday business</i>		
6.1.	Does the management of an Operation Smile mission differ from commercial operations?	
6.2.	Would there ever be an opportunity to use spare capacity or idle fleets?	
7. Interaction Level		
<i>A measure of the frequency of interactions, scope and type of interactions</i>		
7.1.	Who, in DHL, is involved in Operation Smile conversations?	
7.2.	Is there a formal agreement at the moment?	
7.3.	What other things do you consider during conversation and planning for Operation Smile within DHL? Especially in light of shared value.	
7. Benefit sharing		
<i>Benefits of the engagement for DHL</i>		

8.1.	Are there any other benefits, tangible or intangible, that DHL could potentially receive from the collaboration?	
8.2.	What kind of external recognition do you receive as a company from the collaboration?	
8.3.	Do DHL's stakeholders benefit from the contribution? <i>Benefits that can influence profitability such as the growth, engagement, support or development of employees, customers, suppliers, community and government.</i>	
8.4.	To what extent do you plan for the growth of Operation Smile, do you have the ability?	
8.5.	Does DHL gain competitive advantage through its contribution to Operation Smile? <i>Measured by business performance, cost reduction or revenue increase.</i>	